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THE
SAILING VESSEL TRAFFIC
ON THE
WEST COAST OF INDIA
AND ITS FUTURE

◆

by

K. B. VAIDYA.

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DEDICATED

TO

His Highness Maharaja Shri Colonel Sir Digvijayasinhji
Ranjitsinhji Jadeja, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.,
Maharaja Jam Saheb
of
NAWANAGAR

WHOSE keen interest and zeal are so well-known for the well-being of the vast number of people engaged in the Sailing Vessel Traffic on the West Coast of India, whereto His Highness's State contributes 350 Sailing Vessels, and thereby supports a population of over 15,000 hardworking people in the traffic and its allied industries;

WHOSE extreme desire and efforts for the general industrial and commercial development of India are so praiseworthy;

AND who has actually lent support to various institutions throughout India and abroad aiming at this development;

This fiirst book on the subject of "Sailing Vessels Traffic on the West Coast of India and Its Future" is respectfully DEDICATED by the Author.

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His Highness Maharaja Shri Colonel Sir Digvijayasinhji Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja Jam Saheb of Nawnagar, to whom this book is Dedicated

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The Author

We have great pleasure in publishing this valuable book from the pen of an author of international reputation and wide experience. Mr. Vaidya had the good fortune to acquire this experience in different branches of trade, commerce and industry in India and abroad. To this, he adds a distinction, rather rare among businessmen, of journalism and authorship extending over a long period. He has, besides, been a public worker in various fields of activities, and has been intimately connected with a number of business organizations in different parts of the world. A short resume of the author's career is given below:—

Business & Journalistic Career:

General Manager, Amritlal Ojha & Sons Ltd., Bombay, since 1941.
" Great Social Life & General Assurance Ltd., since 1942.
" Indian Shipping Industry Ltd., since 1943. ;
" Indian Enamel Works Ltd., since 1941.
Secretary, Bombay Textiles Ltd., since 1941.
Secretary, Hattersley Mill, 1941-42.
Formerly General Manager for the Far East: Amritlal Ojha & Co. Ltd., (Coal, Shipping, Export & Import) Hongkong, Canton & Shanghai, 1932-1934.
Managing Director: K. B. Vaidya & Co. Ltd., (Coal, Export & Import, Shipping, Insurance etc.); Hongkong, Canton & Shanghai, since 1935.
Managing Director: National Publishers Ltd., Hongkong, & Canton, 1933-1941.
Chief Editor "Canton Daily Sun" & "Canton Truth" 1934-1941.
Formerly Assistant Manager: Scindia Steam Navigation Co. Ltd., Calcutta, 1925-28.
Formerly Assistant Manager: Scindia Steam Navigation Co. Ltd., Bombay & Rangoon (some time in 1929 & 1930).
During this period, Mr. Vaidya also officiated several times as the Manager of the Company's office at Calcutta.
Manager: Scindia Steam Navigation Co. Ltd., Akyab, 1929 & 1930.
Managing Partner, Rowe & Vaidya (Building & Reclamation Contractors), and of Bombay C. P. Trading Co., Bombay, 1922-1925.
General Manager, Jubbulpore Glass Factory, 1920-1922.
Assistant Manager, Jubbulpore Glass Factory, 1918-20.
Passed B.Com., (Bombay University) 1918.

Author of:

Reflections on the Canton Revolt & After, Canton, 1936 (in Third Edition); "Where Will Japan Move Next", Bombay, 1942; "Secret of China's Resistance", Bombay, 1943; "Ten Annual Reports on Hongkong's Coal Trade, (1932-41).

Next Issues:—

"Elements of Shipping"; "The Pacific Realm"; "World's Coal Resources"; "The Far Eastern Tangle".

Public Career:

President, Indian Merchants Association, Akyab, 1930.

Some time Member, Indian Chamber of Commerce Committee, Calcutta in 1929 & 1930.

Provisional President, Indian Merchants Chamber, Hongkong, 1935.

President, Hongkong Men's International Club, 1935.

General Secretary, Indian Association of Hongkong & South China, 1939, 1940 & 1941.

General Secretary, Far East Indian Association, Bombay, since 1941.

General Secretary, Country Craft Trades Association, Bombay, 1944.

Member of Committee, Sailing Shipowners Association, Bombay, 1944.

Member, Country Craft Advisory Committee, Bombay 1944.

Member, Country Craft Freight Advisory Committee, Bombay 1944.

Besides this, Mr. Vaidya has lectured on various subjects at several Universities, Colleges, Rotary Clubs, and other Institutions abroad and in India. Further details about his career will be found on page 1183 of the "Indian Year Book & Who' Who" for 1944-45 published by the "Times of India" Press, Bombay.

We are therefore glad to place before the public this book written by an author so eminently fiitted for his work for which he has done considerable original research work. Planned as it is, the book is probably the pioneer attempt to describe the organization of the traffic, its drawbacks and its possibilities.

The Publishers had expected to get this book out of the Press some time in September, 1944. But the long delay was due to the paper control order which necessitated long correspondence for obtaining permit for the special quota. They are, however, indebted to the Government of India, Department of Industries & Civil Supplies for giving this special quota of papers for the publication of this book.

The Publishers.

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Preface

This book is probably the first attempt to describe in a book form in a connected manner the organization and conditions of the Indian Sailing Ship traffic on the West Coast of India without largely concentrating on the historical aspect of the subject.

As such it may be subject to all those imperfections which every first attempt is apt to be.

But the difficulties in writing a volume of this nature have been greatly augmented by the virtual absence of literature and reference books on the subject of the type on which this volume is planned. At least, there are practically none in English, Gujarati, Marathi or Hindi which may serve as model for our present volume. There are of course a few excellent and authoritative treatises in all the first three languages, on the role played by the Indian Sailing Ship in the traffic on the coast and in the foreign trade of India. But they are mostly of a historical nature, only interspersed here and there with a few references on organization of the traffic, types of ships and shipbuilding. They mainly deal with the achievements of Indians in that domain and also with Indian Colonies abroad in the past. There are some others containing mostly sea stories or describing the history of sea-faring families and communities. But a book which may be of use as a sort of a reference book describing various units of the traffic as well as the conditions under which it is carried, its past, its present and its future, is not available. At least I have not come across one.

Consequently, this book is the result of intensive inquiry, extending over a year, into the actual working of the traffic on the spot and of the information collected from various unwritten sources, such as, discussions on the various aspects of the traffic with the people engaged in it and with those who have inherited the legacies of the traffic and its traditions from distant past. Thereafter the information had to be sifted, analysed and tested before it was incorporated in this book. Most of the work therefore has been the product of original research and inquiry into the subject coupled with the author's own experience of general shipping line extending over a period of twenty years, ten years of which were concerned with the conditions of traffic on the coast of India, Burma and Ceylon.

For the most part, the general lay-out of this volume has been made to serve as a reference book or a text book, confining the historical aspect to the limit which such books would demand. As such, it should serve as reference book to the government departments and as a book guiding the students in their studies and researches on the subject. The utility of the book has been greatly

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increased by the addition of several useful Appendices. Nevertheless, further research into the subject is necessary in order that a clearer understanding of same can be obtained, as I do not claim perfection or finality for this book. I must confess that as the first book on the subject, several imperfections must naturally exist. And sometimes even mistakes or imperfections serve to arrive at truth. So if this attempt serves as a basis or guidance for further research, I should be satisfied.

However, the book excludes from our survey three or four aspects of the trafic. They are (1) passenger traffic by sailing ships, (2) information about the ports on the West Coast and depths of water, anchorages etc. at each port, (3) general trading conditions at such ports together with the facilities of handling traffic at those ports, port charges there etc; (4) stevedoring and stowage of cargo. Each of these would form a volume by itself if an adequate treatment of these subjects has to be aimed at. Besides, it may not be advisable to give some of this information in these war times. This may be attempted at a later date. But at present I could not naturally take note of all these problems in a concise volume of this nature. Consequently, the traffic referred to herein is only the cargo traffic and no reference is made herein to conditions and information about the various ports on the West Coast.

In giving the title to this book, I have deliberately called the book "Sailing Vessel Traffic" instead of the contemptuous name "Country Craft" traffic as popularly given to our sailing vessels.

I do not know as to how our sailing vessels have come to be called "Country Craft". But it appears that both these words have been apparently applied by foreigners in contradistinction to their own sailing ships or the steamships. The word "Country" is applied presumably as differentiating the Indian Sailing Vessels from foreign ones or from steamships. This is clear from the following extract from the Preface to **The Old 'Country Trade'** of the East Indies by W. H. Coates:—

> "Precise origin of the term "Country Service", it is difficult to determine, and in 1838 discussion was invited on the subject. It was held to include vessels owned by Englishmen in India, as well as purely Indian ships, and seems to have been applied as far back as the end of the 17th Century."

Therefore, the expression "Country" came to be applied to all the ships of Indian origin and later to those in the East generally.

There leaves therefore no doubt that the word "Country" was applied to Indian sailing vessels as distinguished from foreign, and even the ships owned by Englishmen resident in India were designated as "Country" vessels. And the matter of surprise is that

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even our own people have been calling our sailing ships as "Country Craft".

But I ask as to why **our** vessels **alone** should be denominated as "Country Craft'? Why do they not speak of British or American sailing vessels as "Country Craft" of Britain or America? We do not hear of such names there. They are called "Sailing Vessels" in those countries as everywhere else. Vessels belonging to any country are obviously its own vessels. But in our country, the process is gone to that length that even in Government enactments and references our sailing vessels have been referred to as "Country Craft" as in "Country Craft Insurance" in the Insurance Act, "Country Craft Organization Office", "Country Craft Advisory Committee", "Country Craft traffic" as against the steamship traffic etc. This is not proper.

I, therefore, object to the use of both these words "Country" and "Craft" because they carry a sort of slur on them, just as the word "native" does, although the radical meaning of all these words is harmless. The word "native" used singly as in "he is a native" has come to be associated with "a man of inferior civilization" almost as an "aboriginal" or as "uncivilised". In fact in Colonial enactments of some European nations, the word "native" is defined like this. And although there is nothing wrong with it radically, it has, in modern times, achieved that slur by its constant use by the Europeans with reference to the people of the non-European lands they visited, where they boasted that they carried their "civilization". If we say "he is a native" of India or of England or America", it is all right when we use the word together with the name of the country. But when it is used singly as a sort of an adjective, it has that slur on it. However even the use of the word in this manner has fallen in disuse. And if we go to England or America, we do not refer to Englishmen or Americans by the single word "natives". We call them "Englishmen" or "Americans". Why then should non-European peoples be styled as "native", by the Europeans? We must be called as "Indians" or "Chinese" or "Malayas", or "Burmese" or "Thailanders" as the case may be with any of the non-European peoples.

Similarly, our sailing vessels should be called "Sailing Vessels" or "Sailing Ships", and if an abbreviated form is needed, that form should be "S. V." as distinguished from "S.S." as used for steamships. It will be obvious to any one that the words "Country" and "Craft" bring in a sense of derogation and inferiority. The former word "Country" may be translated in Indian languages as "Deshi". And it seems to be the fashion with many Indians that whatever is "Deshi" is inferior to foreign. Our sailing vessels have obviously come for a share of this odium. This is not only surprising

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but definitely condemnable in view of the fact that we have had most glorious achievements in the domain of building and running our sailing ships as in other spheres of our national life, of which any great country may be proud. **I want therefore my Indian countrymen to shed such inferiority complex everywhere. This inferiority complex must be eschewed from every walk of our life—National, Political, Economical and Social. Indians are one of the first teachers of the world since the dawn of this world; and although temporarily suppressed, the cycle will change, our side will be lighted again and we will be restored to our rightful status and greatness once again, only if we give up this inferiority complex and try to ennoble every phase of our life by rightful conduct and creditable achievements by hard struggle in the present. However we must not merely keep on boasting of our past achievements. We must struggle in the present for our future development if we want to survive in the struggle of existence and if we want our side of the cycle to be lighted again.**

We must, therefore, give up the use of this word "Country" with reference to our sailing vessels.

Similarly, the word "Craft". The root meaning of the word is also harmless. It may be applied to any construction of wood or metal like a dug-out or a vessel that can float. It is a generic term. But it has come to be applied to small vessels, often without sails. Thus, we usually speak of "harbour craft" or "river craft". But we never speak as "Sea Craft" or "Ocean Craft". In the latter case, we always say "sea-going" or "ocean-going" vessel or ships. This point is made abundantly clear in Henry Keate's "Guide to Marine Insurance" published by Pitmans in England, wherein in Chapter VIII, Mr. Keate specifically refers to "craft" as being used for the haulage of cargo. The following extracts will illustrate the point:—

> "Goods are sent from an interior town to a port and then by "craft" or "lighter" to the side of a steamer".

And again,

> "Covering the risk of "craft" to the vessel at her port of loading and from the vessel at her port of discharge".

Further,

> "This is done by the insertion of the clause "including the risk of craft".

Other books on Marine Insurance also refer to the harbour vessels as "craft".

> Ogilvies' Dictionary gives the definition of "Craft" as:
> "All sorts of vessels employed in loading or unloading ships, as lighters, hoys, barges, scows, etc."

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These extracts and definitions leave no doubt as to what is meant by the word "craft". The word has come actually to mean that "craft" is a small vessel, often without sails, which operates only in harbour or on the rivers, such as a lighter, dinghi, hodi etc. which are used for transportation of cargo from shore to bigger vessels in the roads, or from such vessels to the shore. It is suggestive of a diminutive form or type of vessels such as those towed by sticks or oars. This meaning is supported by popular conception of the word in these days.

Once we accept this interpretation of the word—and I believe it is accepted—then I fail to understand as to why our sailing ships should be styled as "craft". We have built ships even in the distant past with tonnage capacity exceeding 2,000 tons when others were unable to build such big vessels which could scour all the seven seas of the world. And we can build same even now if required. We were the first to build, according to the Portuguese, huge ships "like mountains". And there is no reason why any derogatory name should be given to our sailing ships only, which is not given in any other country.

I want therefore this expression "Country Craft" to be entirely omitted while referring to our sailing vessels, and the words "Sailing Vessels" or Sailing Ships" should be used instead of "Country Craft".

And the first to begin to designate our sailing vessels as "Sailing Vessels" instead of "Country Craft" should be Indians themselves. We, at least, should not allow our own vessels to be called by the derogatory name "Country Craft". I have discarded the expression in this book and I earnestly hope that both the Government and the public will do it likewise.

In the preparation of this book, I must acknowledge the assistance of all those who have readily given or supplied me information on the subject or its sources, but more particularly that given to me by Seth Abdul Rehman, the eldest son of Sir Mohamud Yusuf, who was kind enough to lend me a few books on the subject for reference. I must also acknowledge the great assistance given to me by Capt. R. Parcou, F.R.G.S., F.R.S.A., Extra-Master (Square-rigged), from the Seychelles Island, one of the most experienced seamen on this side, who has sailed for over 25 years in sailing ships and about 25 years in steamships practically all over the world. Capt. Parcou whom I have known for over 18 years and whom I met in different parts of the world such as in Calcutta, Akyab, Hongkong, Canton, Macao and Bombay was of particular assistance to me in explaining various aspects of the traffic, the rigs of ships, navigation of ships, weather conditions, speed of the different types of ships, construction of ships, captains and the crew and

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various other technical aspects dealt with in this book. In fact, he was good enough to read and to revise first few chapters of this book containing information more or less of a technical character. His advice was very valuable to me. I must also acknowledge my debt to Mr. Hussen Currimbhoy, a scion of the illustrious Bombay family of the Baronet Currimbhoys and Secretary of the Kathiawar Shipbuilding and Trading Corporation Ltd. of Porbandar who are well-known shipbuilders, for advice, assistance and encouragement in various ways. I was able to discuss with him on various problems of the traffic and shipbuilding. A lot of other information was obtained from Mr. Bhagwanji Devshanker Upadhyaya, partner of Messrs. Dewkaran Moorji & Co., a firm of sailing ship brokers of about 120 years standing. Our own tindel and later our Marine Supervisor, Joosab Hussen of Beyt, Kathiawar, was able to give me considerable information regarding the construction of ships and their repairs, maintenance, shipping season, captains and the crew as well as speed of various types of ships and their advantages and defects. Tindel Noor Mohmed of Beyt, Kathiawar, kindly supplied me the original rough sketches of the different types of ships trading on the West Coast of India of which the Artist Mr. Vasant Kelkar later made such good work. Mr. Ibrahim Ahmed Saheb Mulla, a founder and first Secretary of the West Coast of India Sailing Shipowners Association was of help to me in making up the Marathi phraseology appearing in the Appendix A of this book. The family of Mr. Mulla is a great sea-faring family of the Ratnagiri District with shipping business extending over 150 years. Mr. Fulshanker J. Trivedi of our Office who is an old and experienced worker in the line was good enough to give me some valuable information and suggestions. Similarly Mr. Tulsidas M. Vishram of Vishram Khimji kindly supplied me some useful information about the subject. Mr. Raghunath V. Mahashabde, our former Marine Manager (of Great Social Life and General Assurance Ltd.) and presently Chief Agent of the Company for sailing vessels insurance was of assistance to me in preparing the chapter on "Insurance". Mr. Mahsukhbhai Dahyalal Makanji and his younger brother Mr. Shantilal, who hold a prominent position in Marine Insurance, willingly read my chapter on "Insurance" and supplied me several details about the subject. Mr. V. R. Sonalkar, B.A., Deputy General Manager of the United Commercial Bank was good enough to read my chapter on "Banking" and to make some useful suggestions. Mr. Vasant Kelkar of "Art Corner" gladly took up the work of making fine sketches and blocks used in this book and on the cover. The Editorial Department and the Management of the "Janmabhoomi" and "the States' People Press Ltd." readily gave me the use of their library and completed the printing of this book under

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rather strenuous conditions. To all these friends and institutions I take this opportunity to express my grateful thanks.

In the same way, I must acknowledge my thanks to several colleagues of mine in our office who utilized their out-of-office leisure hours for helping me in preparing Index, reading some proofs and preparing tables of distances. To mention only some, Mr. S. Vardachari, B.A., assisted me in preparing tables of distances; Mr. J. G. Chavda, Mr. M. S. Zope and Mr. T. G. Desai in preparing Index; Mr. B. D'Souza, Mr. D. R. Jhala and Mr. K. Ram Bhatt in typing the manuscript and also in preparing Index; Mr. R. J. Desai, M.A., read some of the proofs. I am gratefully thankful to them for devoting for this work their leisure hours upon which I had encroached.

I am also indebted to all the authors of the books referred to by me and listed elsewhere in this book.

At the same time, I am indebted to the Country Craft Organization Office, the War Transport Department and the Department of Industries and Civil Supplies of the Government of India for giving a special quota of paper required for his book.

And my list will not be complete, if I do not acknowledge my deep debt of gratitude to all those under whose guidance and encouragement, I was able to forge ahead in the commerrial and industrial world of India and also to build up my career in the shipping line, as a result of which I am now able to write a book of this nature. I may mention in this connection the names of the late Sir Lallubhai Samaldas, the late Seth Narottam Morarjee, the late Seth Amritlal Ojha, Seth Walchand Hiradhand, Sir Chunilal V. Mehta and others. To Seth Amritlal Ojha, I am indebted for my experience in foreign countries in shipping, coal and insurance lines. My long stay abroad, which was made possible by Seth Amritlal Ojha, benefitted me in various ways, and widened the horizon of my activities and outlook in numerous directions. I can hardly repay the debt that I owe him for this. Alas, he is not with me today to see the publication of this book the writing of which was undertaken when he was in this world. Further, I must also mention the name of Mr. M. A. Master, B.A., LL.B., the General Manager of Scindia Steam Navigation Co. Ltd. than whom no other single Indian has done so much for Indian Shipping except the founders of the Scindia Steam Navigation Company Ltd. themselves and Mr. S. N. Haji the sponsor of the Haji Bill for Indian coastal shipping. I had the good fortune to work in that Company for several years under Mr. Master's control. I owe a lot to him in my career after 1930. In that year, on a queer occasion he gave me a piece of advice of utilizing every opportunity for obtaining knowledge and experience by hard work, himself being an indefatigable worker. And though I felt the advice a bit bitter that time, I took it to heart and decided to work hard to gain knowledge and experience. Since then, I have been working without a break or leave, on an average about 15 to 16 hours a day, never wasting any time on gossips or stray talks. Barring my office work which usually exceeded regular office hours and which often required my home time also, almost all my time was utilised in learning, reading and gaining knowledge and experience in every possible way. It was due to this habit, that after attending my office work which always came first, I could devote my time to public work in India and abroad and also to journalism and writing books. And the present book is also the result of this habit. I may, therefore, gratefully mention that but for that valuable piece of advice given to me by Mr. Master, perhaps this book may not have seen the light of the day.

Finally, if, by oversight, I have omitted to acknowledge my thanks to any one who was useful to me in the preparation of this book, I do hereby acknowledge my debt to all of them whose names I may have unintentionally omitted.

Bombay,
October 29, 1944.

K. B. Vaidya

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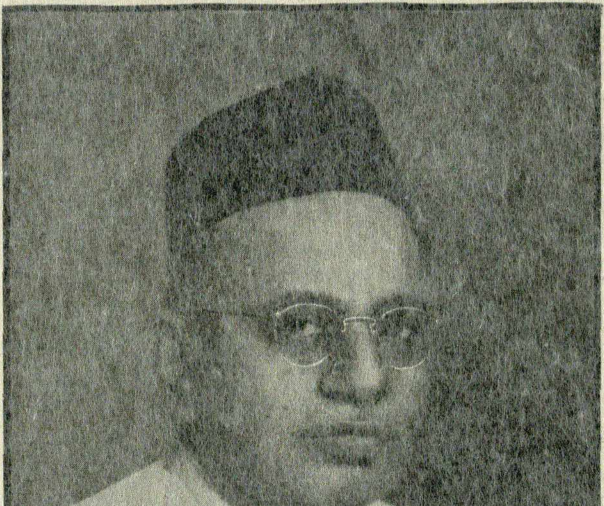

The late Seth Amritlal Ojha to whom the Author owes his long stay in foreign countries which gave the Author opportunities of studying and working in the Shipping Line abroad.

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These extracts and definitions leave no doubt as to what is meant by the word "craft". The word has come actually to mean that "craft" is a small vessel, often without sails, which operates only in harbour or on the rivers, such as a lighter, dinghi, hodi etc. which are used for transportation of cargo from shore to bigger vessels in the roads, or from such vessels to the shore. It is suggestive of a diminutive form or type of vessels such as those towed by sticks or oars. This meaning is supported by popular conception of the word in these days.

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I want therefore this expression "Country Craft" to be entirely omitted while referring to our sailing vessels, and the words "Sailing Vessels" or Sailing Ships" should be used instead of "Country Craft".

And the first to begin to designate our sailing vessels as "Sailing Vessels" instead of "Country Craft" should be Indians themselves. We, at least, should not allow our own vessels to be called by the derogatory name "Country Craft". I have discarded the expression in this book and I earnestly hope that both the Government and the public will do it likewise.

In the preparation of this book, I must acknowledge the assistance of all those who have readily given or supplied me information on the subject or its sources, but more particularly that given to me by Seth Abdul Rehman, the eldest son of Sir Mohamud Yusuf, who was kind enough to lend me a few books on the subject for reference. I must also acknowledge the great assistance given to me by Capt. R. Parcou, F.R.G.S., F.R.S.A., Extra-Master (Square-rigged), from the Seychelles Island, one of the most experienced seamen on this side, who has sailed for over 25 years in sailing ships and about 25 years in steamships practically all over the world. Capt. Parcou whom I have known for over 18 years and whom I met in different parts of the world such as in Calcutta, Akyab, Hongkong, Canton, Macao and Bombay was of particular assistance to me in explaining various aspects of the traffic, the rigs of ships, navigation of ships, weather conditions, speed of the different types of ships, construction of ships, captains and the crew and various other technical aspects dealt with in this book. In fact, he was good enough to read and to revise first few chapters of this book containing information more or less of a technical character. His advice was very valuable to me. I must also acknowledge my debt to Mr. Hussen Currimbhoy, a scion of the illustrious Bombay family of the Baronet Currimbhoys and Secretary of the Kathiawar Shipbuilding and Trading Corporation Ltd. of Porbandar who are well-known shipbuilders, for advice, assistance and encouragement in various ways. I was able to discuss with him on various problems of the traffic and shipbuilding. A lot of other information was obtained from Mr. Bhagwanji Devshanker Upadhyaya, partner of Messrs. Dewkaran Moorji & Co., a firm of sailing ship brokers of about 120 years standing. Our own tindel and later our Marine Supervisor, Joosab Hussen of Beyt, Kathiawar, was able to give me considerable information regarding the construction of ships and their repairs, maintenance, shipping season, captains and the crew as well as speed of various types of ships and their advantages and defects. Tindel Noor Mohmed of Beyt, Kathiawar, kindly supplied me the original rough sketches of the different types of ships trading on the West Coast of India of which the Artist Mr. Vasant Kelkar later made such good work. Mr. Ibrahim Ahmed Saheb Mulla, a founder and first Secretary of the West Coast of India Sailing Shipowners Association was of help to me in making up the Marathi phraseology appearing in the Appendix A of this book. The family of Mr. Mulla is a great sea-faring family of the Ratnagiri District with shipping business extending over 150 years. Mr. Fulshanker J. Trivedi of our Office who is an old and experienced worker in the line was good enough to give me some valuable information and suggestions. Similarly Mr. Tulsidas M. Vishram of Vishram Khimji kindly supplied me some useful information about the subject. Mr. Raghunath V. Mahashabde, our former Marine Manager (of Great Social Life and General Assurance Ltd.) and presently Chief Agent of the Company for sailing vessels insurance was of assistance to me in preparing the chapter on "Insurance". Mr. Mahsukhbhai Dahyalal Makanji and his younger brother Mr. Shantilal, who hold a prominent position in Marine Insurance, willingly read my chapter on "Insurance" and supplied me several details about the subject. Mr. V. R. Sonalkar, B.A., Deputy General Manager of the United Commercial Bank was good enough to read my chapter on "Banking" and to make some useful suggestions. Mr. Vasant Kelkar of "Art Corner" gladly took up the work of making fine sketches and blocks used in this book and on the cover. The Editorial Department and the Management of the "Janmabhoomi" and "the States' People Press Ltd." readily gave me the use of their library and completed the printing of this book under

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rather strenuous conditions. To all these friends and institutions I take this opportunity to express my grateful thanks.

In the same way, I must acknowledge my thanks to several colleagues of mine in our office who utilized their out-of-office leisure hours for helping me in preparing Index, reading some proofs and preparing tables of distances. To mention only some, Mr. S. Vardachari, B.A., assisted me in preparing tables of distances; Mr. J. G. Chavda, Mr. M. S. Zope and Mr. T. G. Desai in preparing Index; Mr. B. D'Souza, Mr. D. R. Jhala and Mr. K. Ram Bhatt in typing the manuscript and also in preparing Index; Mr. R. J. Desai, M.A., read some of the proofs. I am gratefully thankful to them for devoting for this work their leisure hours upon which I had encroached.

I am also indebted to all the authors of the books referred to by me and listed elsewhere in this book.

At the same time, I am indebted to the Country Craft Organization Office, the War Transport Department and the Department of Industries and Civil Supplies of the Government of India for giving a special quota of paper required for his book.

And my list will not be complete, if I do not acknowledge my deep debt of gratitude to all those under whose guidance and encouragement, I was able to forge ahead in the commerrial and industrial world of India and also to build up my career in the shipping line, as a result of which I am now able to write a book of this nature. I may mention in this connection the names of the late Sir Lallubhai Samaldas, the late Seth Narottam Morarjee, the late Seth Amritlal Ojha, Seth Walchand Hiradhand, Sir Chunilal V. Mehta and others. To Seth Amritlal Ojha, I am indebted for my experience in foreign countries in shipping, coal and insurance lines. My long stay abroad, which was made possible by Seth Amritlal Ojha, benefitted me in various ways, and widened the horizon of my activities and outlook in numerous directions. I can hardly repay the debt that I owe him for this. Alas, he is not with me today to see the publication of this book the writing of which was undertaken when he was in this world. Further, I must also mention the name of Mr. M. A. Master, B.A., LL.B., the General Manager of Scindia Steam Navigation Co. Ltd. than whom no other single Indian has done so much for Indian Shipping except the founders of the Scindia Steam Navigation Company Ltd. themselves and Mr. S. N. Haji the sponsor of the Haji Bill for Indian coastal shipping. I had the good fortune to work in that Company for several years under Mr. Master's control. I owe a lot to him in my career after 1930. In that year, on a queer occasion he gave me a piece of advice of utilizing every opportunity for obtaining knowledge and experience by hard work, himself being an indefatigable worker. And though I felt the advice a bit bitter that time, I took it to heart and decided to work hard to gain knowledge and experience. Since then, I have been working without a break or leave, on an average about 15 to 16 hours a day, never wasting any time on gossips or stray talks. Barring my office work which usually exceeded regular office hours and which often required my home time also, almost all my time was utilised in learning, reading and gaining knowledge and experience in every possible way. It was due to this habit, that after attending my office work which always came first, I could devote my time to public work in India and abroad and also to journalism and writing books. And the present book is also the result of this habit. I may, therefore, gratefully mention that but for that valuable piece of advice given to me by Mr. Master, perhaps this book may not have seen the light of the day.

Finally, if, by oversight, I have omitted to acknowledge my thanks to any one who was useful to me in the preparation of this book, I do hereby acknowledge my debt to all of them whose names I may have unintentionally omitted.

Bombay,
October 29, 1944. **K. B. Vaidya**

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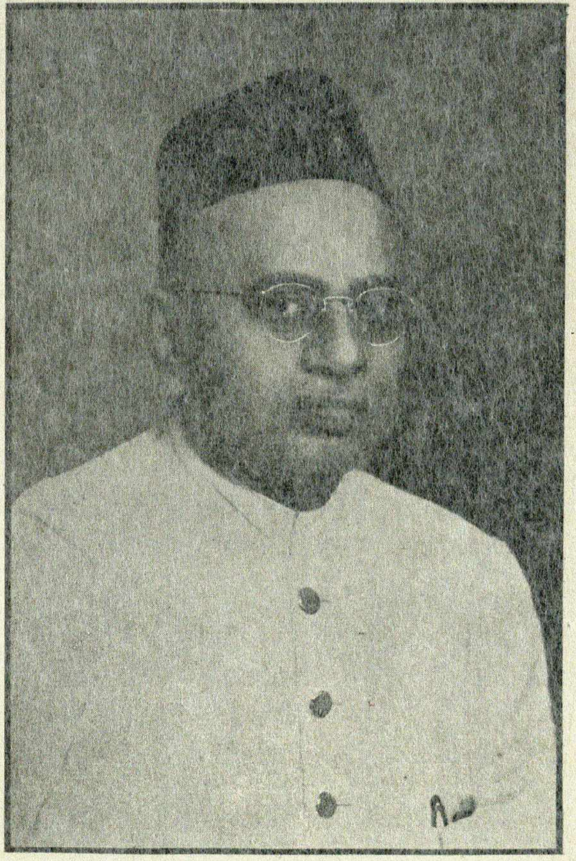

The late Seth Amritlal Ojha to whom the Author owes his long stay in foreign countries which gave the Author opportunities of studying and working in the Shipping Line abroad.

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THE SAILING VESSEL TRAFFIC

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CHAPTER I.

THE STATEMENT.

The growing demand for employment of sailing ships for sea transport is mainly due to war conditions involving two main factors (1) Desire or necessity to conserve steam tonnage for war purposes and (2) Desire or necessity to conserve railway waggons also for war purposes, specially the Broad Gauge waggons.

This demand is further deliberately stimulated in these days by Government authorities by definite methods, such as, the creation of the Country Craft Organisation Office, allocation of certain kinds of Government and Military goods for carriage by sailing ships and restrictions on railway bookings on certain lines so that most of the traffic is diverted to sea to be transported by sailing ships. It is also due to the unavailability of steamer tonnage to the public due to war and its requirements, loss of existing steamships and the difficulty of replacing them owing to high cost of construction, and the scarcity of steel and other materials for construction of steamers for commercial purposes.

Thus the factors that go to create this demand for sailing ships are more of a specific than of a general nature and have mainly come into operation owing to the exigencies of the war.

The problem therefore arises whether with the disappearance of war conditions the sailing ship can maintain its position in the sea traffic, and if not, whether any ways and means can be found to bring it within the scope of our postwar reconstruction so that the sailing ship can hereafter hold its own even in normal peace times.

In order to consider this problem, it is essential to examine first the prewar and present position of the sailing ship traffic in its various aspects on the west coast of India.

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Such an examination would then enable one to form more or less definite ideas as to a workable organisation in the present and improvement in the future.

The main portion of this book, therefore, will be devoted to the statement of the position of the trade on the west coast of India as it exists to-day and to some extent as it existed in the past. But we shall attempt to summarise some important features of the problem in the closing portion, so that the readers may be able to form their own views on the subject.

In the following chapter we shall be describing the types of ships operating on the west coast of India, some of which do not necessarily belong to the owners on the west coast nor are all the ships constructed in yards situated on the west coast. Subsequent chapters are devoted to the treatment of the various aspects connected with the trade. The last chapter embodies some of the major problems to be solved in connection with the trade along with a few of our own conclusions on the subject.

CHAPTER II.

DIFFERENT TYPES OF SHIPS.

The Sailing Ships operating on the West Coast of India are of various types and varying sizes.

Broadly speaking we may classify them as (1) Arabian Type Baglas (2) Cutch-Kathiawar and Sind Type Kothias (3) Gujerat Type Machwas and Batelas (4) Thana-Ratnagiri Type Fatemaris and Mhangiris (5) Malabar (Cochin-Calicut) Type Manjis (6) Tuticorin Type Luggers, and (7) Jaffna-Madras-Cocanada Type Brig. Further classification by names which have reference to some of these types may be given as, Kothia, Fatemari, Batela, Balao, Bagla, Mangali, Galbat, Manji, Mhangiri, Shibadi, Machwa, Padav, Hodi, Dinghi, and non-rigged craft like Tarafa, Steel Lighters, and a host of others. The tonnage of these ships also usually varies according to their type and usage. For instance, Kothias, Batelas, Shibadis and

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Baglas are usually of 100 tons or more;Fatemaries and Manjis are between 50 and 100 tons each; Galbats and Mhangiris are from 30 to 60 tons; Machwas and Padavs are from 10 to 30 tons; Hodis and Dinghis are from 1 to 3 tons (but some Kathiawar and Cutch Hodis are from 8 to 25 tons); Tarafas (flat and broad type) are from 10 to 25 tons and steel lighters (flat and non-seagoing) are from 50 to 500 tons, and so on. These last two are usually without sails and operate only in harbours and inland back water.

We must leave out several of these which are of local use and do not go out to sea, viz. Padavs, Tarafas, Lighters, Hodis and Dinghis. These craft are ordinarily used in harbours or in creeks and inland waters, as some of these are too small to go out to sea and others have no mast or sail and require tugs or long poles to move them about in the harbour or in shallow waters. These vessels have therefore been left out of the present survey which has then been confined to the other types of vessels which ply on the west coast of India. Let us begin with the largest of them viz. the Arabian Bagla.

1. **Arabian Ships :** They are known in India as Baglas and the Arabians also call them by the same name. Other Arabian names are "Sambook", "Bhoom" and "Ganjawar". They are beautifully decorated, both fore and aft, and are built of Malabar and Burma teak with a high stern and a projecting bow. They are provided with decks and hatches with improvised wooden bulkheads between the holds. The poop provides space for the crew and on the top of it, there is the steering gear with Mariner's Compass. They have two masts with two "fore-and-aft" sails, the fore sail measures about 65 to 70 ft. The main sail is smaller, about 30 ft. high on the leech when hoisted up, that is, from the top of the yard to the sheet and often but not invariably a very big jib at the bow, which is set on a jibboon. They usually carry with them two additional sails for emergency. The height of the masts depends upon the size of the boats. The usual tonnage of the Arabian Ships is about 100 to 150 tons ; but very often

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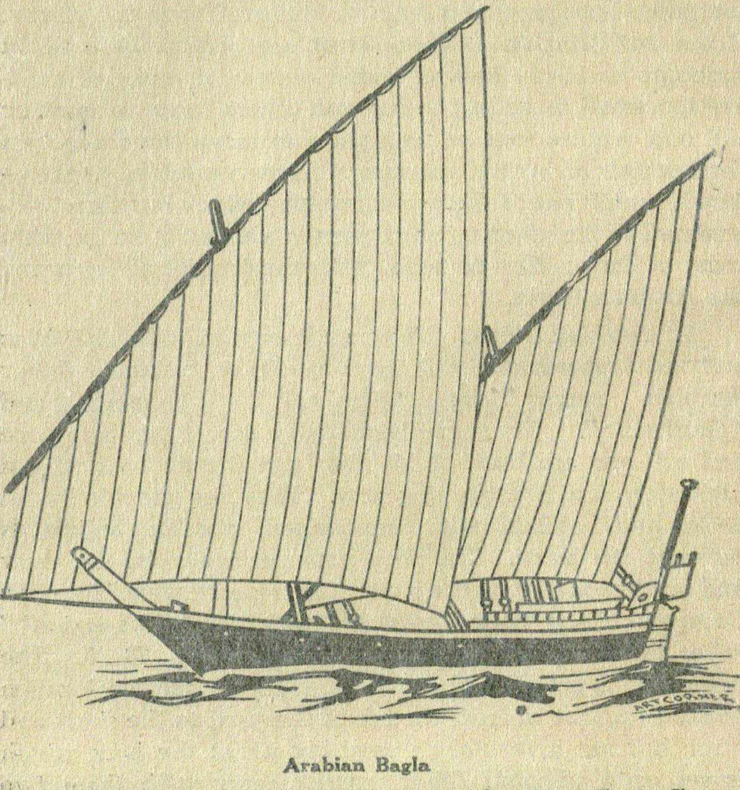
Arabian ships of 250, 300 or even 500 tons visit the west coast of India. When loaded, a 100-ton ship would draw about 8 to 10 feet of water. The number of crew, both Arabian and Persian, varies from 8 to 20 according to the size of the ships. The average wages of the crew are about Rs. 25 per month plus food. Although their speed depends on the individual ship, most of them cover on an average 100 to 150 miles per day (when fully loaded) with favourable wind. They usually ply between the west coast of India and Arabia, Persian Gulf, Mombassa, Mozambique, Zanzibar and other East Coast ports of Africa and west coast Madagascar. Most of them are built at Sour near Busrah, Muscat, Linga, Kissam, Bun-



Arabian Bagla

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der Abbas and Koweitt in Arabia and on the Persian Gulf coast. They usually bring dates, raisins, almonds, pistachios, mats, coffee, carpets and such other general cargo from their home ports, and carry from India, foodgrains, hemp, groundnut, piecegoods, yarn, iron and steel products, tea and other general cargo. In wartimes, Arabia, Persia and the adjacent countries are mainly dependent on India for supplies and most of this traffic is carried on by the Arabian and Cutch-Kathiawar-Sind ships from India and to a limited extent by steamships. At present the sailing ships get full cargo from India to Arabia and East Africa, but not so from Arabia, Persian Gulf and Africa to India. The ports of call in India are Karachi, Jamnagar (Bedi), Bombay, Marmagoa, Cochin and Calicut and sometimes Tuticorin and Colombo. The ports of call for these ships with cargo from India on the Arabian and Persian Gulf coasts are Aden, Muscat, Koweitt, Khoramshahar and Busrah.

Accidents are very few. The ships are manned by Arabian sailors who brave all dangers of the sea courageously and handle their ships skilfully. The captains navigate their ships cautiously with the help of the Compass and the Quadrant or Sextant. They complete a round voyage, say, between Busrah and Bombay and back to Busrah in about 100 days. The Arabian ships are perhaps the strongest and the most efficient ships on the run.

2. **Cutch-Kathiawar and Sind Types:** They include Kothias, Ganjo, Navdi, Padav, Machwa and Dhangi. They are also very strongly built and are manned by Cutch-Kathiawar Sindhi crew—the finest of their class not only in India but amongst the finest sailors of the world.

These ships are constructed of the best Malabar teak and often in peace times, of Burma teak. Bulsar teak is also used. Their forecastle is not so high as those of the Arabian ships, but like them they are provided with decks "sathas" and hatches. They are, in some cases, of "fore and aft rigged" schooner type, with two masts as in the case of Arabian ships. Beautifully decorated with all

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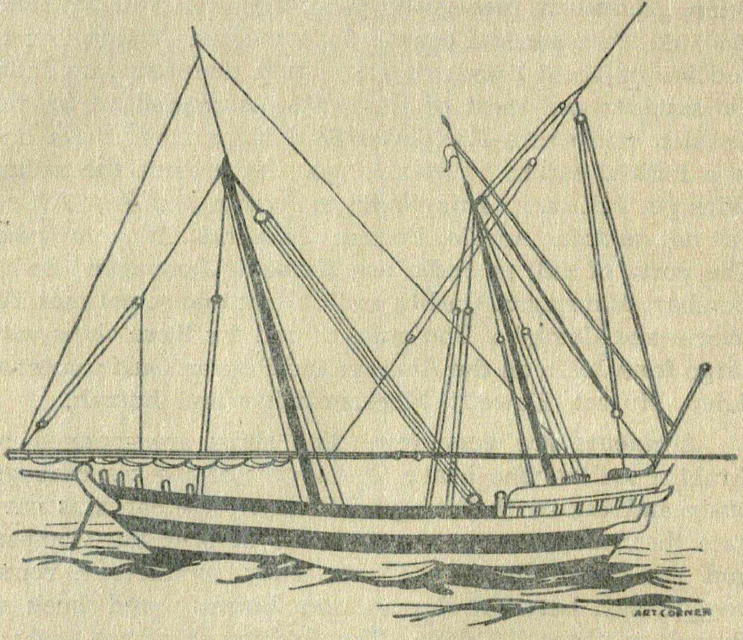
auspicious marks and images of deities, the Cutch-Kathiawar type of vessels can scour all the seven seas of the world if necessary. They are also built with a high stern. Usually of tonnage between 50 and 100, they are often constructed



Cutch-Kathiawar Kothia

for larger capacity up to 200 tons. Their draught when loaded is between 8 and 9 feet. They ply usually all over the west coast of India in these days, but are also engaged in the India-Arabia and Indo-African trade on a large scale. On the African side they call at Zanzibar Mombassa and Mozambique. On the Arabian and Persian Gulf coast they call at Muscat, Aden, Khoramshahar, Busrah and Koweitt, and complete a round trip in about 100 days including time taken in loading and unloading. In a season they usually make two trips to Busrah and one or two short trips, between ports on the Indian Coast. Their average speed is about 80 to 100 miles per day in favourable weather with a free breeze when fully loaded. Between

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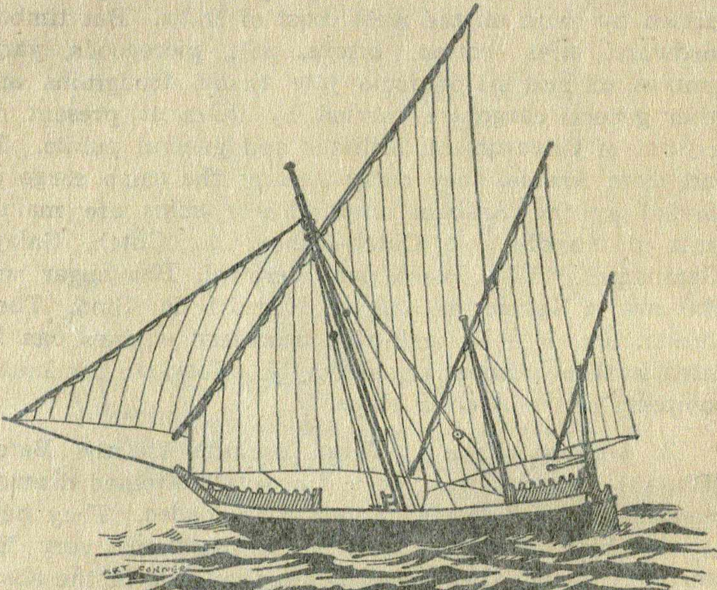
Malabar and Kathiawar they make three trips per season with additional one or two trips between Kathiawar and Karachi or between Kathiawar and Bombay. In peace times, they call even at Calcutta and some of them proceed even up to Malacca. If fully engaged on the Bombay-Malabar trade, they can make four round voyages in a season. There is no definite description of cargo that is carried by them on the west coast of India. But timber, hardware, tiles, cotton, bricks, salt, piecegoods, yarn, gunnies, oil and oil products, jute twine, foodgrains and other general cargo are carried by them at present on account of Government, Military and general public. To and from Arabia, they carry usually the same cargo as carried by the Arabian ships. These ships are mainly built at Kundla and Cutch-Mandvi in Cutch, Salaya (Jamnagar), Okha, Porbander, Verawal, Bhavnagar and Mahuwa in Kathiawar, and at Karachi in Sind. Their construction is solid and even auxiliary engines can be fitted to them without any difficulty. They are the Indian compeers of the Arabian ships.

3. **Gujerat Type:** These include mainly Batela (Dhows) and Machwa type and are flat-bottomed drawing maximum 6 to 7 feet of water when loaded. They have a very high forecastle with a comparatively very low stern. Although their speed is less than that of the above two types of vessels, they weather the storms equally well. Their oscility is fine and they can admirably stand rolling at sea. They are constructed mainly of Bulsar teak at the shipbuilding yards of Jaffrabad, Broach, Surat, Bilimora, Bulsar and Navsari—these being the centres of teak known as " Bulsar Teak ". Construction is quite strong, but they are not provided with decks and hatches. They are manned by Gujerati Kharvas ("Motabhais") who generally come from Jaffrabad and Navsari. Besides sea voyages, this type of ship is most suitable for shallow water traffic as near the mouths of the rivers on the Gujerat Coast, such as, the Tapti, the Nerbudda, the Auranga and the Ambika. Although they are generally employed for shorter voyages and ply main-

ly between Gujerat and Kathiawar, and between Gujerat and Bombay, they are also employed for long journeys, and they sail up to Cochin in the south and even to Busrah in the west. Their speed is about 60 to 80 miles per day in favourable weather. The cargo carried by them includes among other things, timber, salt, piecegoods, bricks, cotton and cotton seeds. They are specially suited for patrol work, and guns and auxiliary engines can be fitted to them without any further reinforcement in their construction. They are from 100 to 150 tons in capacity and carry from 12 to 15 khalasis.



Gujerat Batela

4. Thana-Ratnagiri Type: These include Shibadis, Kothias, Balaos, Galbats, Mhangiris and Fatemaris as well as Machwas.

These ships are constructed both of Malabar and Bulsar teak, as well as of Undi wood, the latter being used mainly

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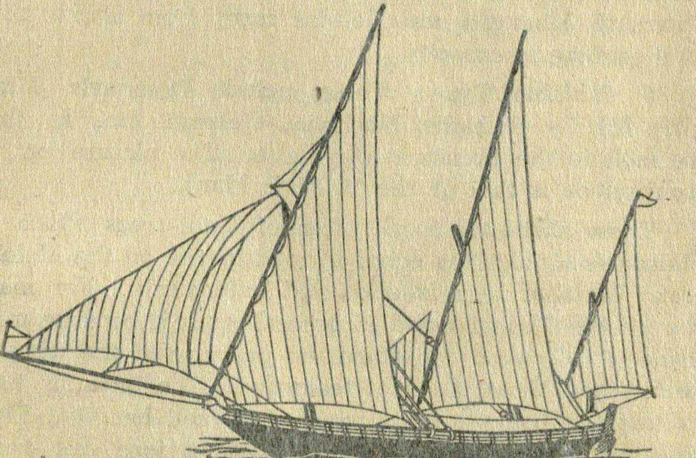
In the Ratnagiri District. The centres of construction are: Bassein, Thana, Uran (Mora), Alibag, Anjanwel (Dabhol), Ratnagiri, Deogad and Malwan.

Of these the Kothias, Mhangiris, Fatemaris and Galbats are of two masts with several jibs on the forecastle, while Balao and Machwas are of one mast. The Shibadis, Kothias, Mhangiris and Fatemaris are more or less constructed with a straight schooner type hull with the stern slightly higher than the bow. Shibadi is the largest being from 100 to 300 tons. The Fatemaris, the Mhangiris and Kothias are from 60 to 100 tons capacity. When loaded they give, like the Malabar Manjis, an appearance almost of a straight line, with neither the stern nor the bow rising much above the water. They draw about 8 to 9 feet of water when loaded. They are used mainly on the traffic southward of Bombay up to Cochin, but more often on the Bombay-Marmagoa traffic. They carry mostly foodgrains, salt, piecegoods and other general cargo from Bombay, and bring timber and cocoanuts from Calicut and Cochin, timber and grains from Thana District and tiles from



Thana-Ratnagiri Fatemari

Mangalore to Bombay. They hardly sail northward to Gujerat, Kathiawar, or Karachi, or to the northwest to Busrah. They ply mostly on the west coast, southward towards Cochin. They are manned by Kolis of Kolaba (Alibag) District, and Kolis, Bhandaris, Kunbis and Konkani Muslims of Ratnagiri District. The Kolis (fishermen class) form another class of the finest sailors in India and in storm they climb up to the ends of the masts and yardarms with ease and agility like that of monkeys climbing on trees, and manage the sails with great skill and utter disregard of their own lives. Here is the finest raw material for future sailors in the expanded Mercantile Marine of India. They pass their life mostly on water, and while on land, they feel like "fish out of water". The Shibadi carries from 20 to 25 of such khalasis; and the Fatemari, Mhangiri and Kothias carry from about 12 to 18 according to capacity.

5. **Malabar Type:** These include Fatemaris, Mhangiris, Manjis, Shibadis, Machwas, Galbats, etc. In these we include the Kanarese ships also. The picture on the frontispiece is that of the Malabar Manji.

These ships are made often of Undi trees which the Malabaris consider as equal if not superior to the Malabar teak. Malabar teak is also used extensively. For masts, the pliable Panhai wood is generally used, because masts made of this wood can stand the pressure of the wind far better than those made of teakwood. The latter is liable to crack in heavy storms when ships roll heavily. These ships are usually with two masts with a fore sail and a main sail along with one jib which is set on the more or lass elongated bow. (Incidentally, it may be mentioned that these ships have not got the high elevated bow as in the case of Batelas and Baglas). They give a streamlined appearance when loaded. Their average capacity is about 100 to 110 tons, sometimes smaller up to 75 tons. They are built for speed and can make about 6 to 7 knots per hour (loaded) with favourable wind and draw about 8 to 9 feet of water. But their average daily run will not exceed 120

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miles on account of the spell of calm behaviour of the land and sea breeze prevailing on the west coast of India during the North-East Trade Winds, even if the direction of the breeze is favourable. As compared to Cutch-Kathiawar, Gujerat and Arabian ships, the Malabar ships cannot be said to stand the rough weather and rolling so well without additional provision in construction so as to give them more longitudinal strength, that is, strength to the Keel and side planks. In former times however, Malabar (Cochin) built very strong ships of great speed, the longevity in some cases exceeding 60 years. They plied to the countries both to the east and west of India. But it appears that they now build ships purposely for the coastal traffic only which does not require very strong ships. These ships are manned by Malabaris, Mangaloreans and Moplas. Their centres of construction from Kanara to Cochin are: Sadashivgad, Mangalore, Kasaragod, Baliapatam and Calicut. All these boats are usually without permanent wooden decks and hatches, and only a thatched deck—temporary or movable—as an awning to protect the cargo is provided.

They are engaged mainly in the carriage of timber from Malabar, and bricks and tiles from Mangalore. Other cargo carried by them from Malabar for Bombay consists of spices, coir and coir-mats, copra, cocoanuts and oil. Cargo from Bombay consists of piecegoods, foodgrains, hardware and other miscellaneous cargo. Their limitation is that the crew do not sail north of Bombay, and they do not secure full freight on their return voyage from Bombay. On most occasions they sail from Bombay only with sand ballast and without any cargo rather than waiting for small parcels, as they hardly, if ever, get full load cargo on their homeward voyage. It is only in these days that they get some Government and Military cargo from Bombay, such as foodgrains to Konkan coast, and occasionally some stores for the Military Department.

The Malabaris and the Kanarese are efficient sailors; but they work in a limited sphere on the southern part of the

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west coast of India only between Bombay in the north and up to Alleppey in the south. In the present war times they do not usually proceed south of Alleppey, although in normal times, they sail even up to Tuticorin and Colombo. The Malabar Manjis have about 10 to 12 khalasis on them.

6. **Tuticorin Type:** The construction of these boats is like that of steamships, with Clipper type of bow and elliptical round stern. They can be called "luggers". They are fitted with two masts and a jibboon with "fore and aft" sails. They are very strongly built and are provided with hatches and hatch coverings and wooden-decked all over as in the case of "flush-deck" steamers. They are fitted with steering gear and compass and with arrangement for crew almost similar to that made in foreign-going ships. They can be fitted with auxiliary engines without much trouble. They are provided with a derrick and hand winch for loading and discharging cargo. Their draught is about 8 to 9 feet. Ships of this type are in service some-

Tuticorin Lugger

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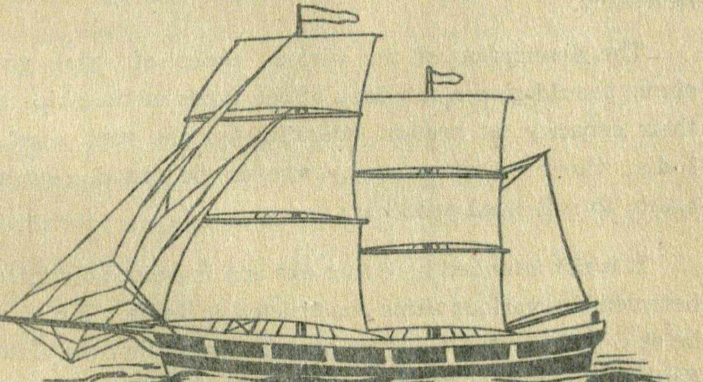
times for over 60 years which is also the approximate life of the Arabian and Cutch-Kathiawar ships. With favourable fresh wind they can effectively compete with slow cargo steamships. They can easily make about 8 to 10 knots per hour under such favourable circumstances. But the drawback with these ships is that as compared with other ships like the Malabar Manjis, they are slower when sailing against the wind. Besides, because they are larger than many other ships on the coast, they naturally take a longer time for securing the comparatively larger quantity of cargo for one or two ports only which is required for them, as it is well-known that the sailing ships do not usually load for more than one or two ports. More ports of call are considered uneconomical for a sailing ship.

7. **Jaffina-Madras-Cocanada Type:** These vessels are exactly of the shape and rigging as those of Clippers of the European type. They are all square-rigged brigs and barques. They are usually of 200 to 300 tons capacity but very often even 600 to 700 tons. Their mean draught is usually about 10 to 12 feet loaded. They carry from 15 to 25 crew according to the size and rig of each ship. Their



Jaffna-Madras-Cocanada Barque

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speed under favourable weather conditions is about 7 knots and sometimes even up to 10 knots. They operate on the coast of Ceylon, Coromandel Coast in the east, and up to Malabar on the west. They visit the Luccadives and the Maldives, Burma and sometimes even Malaya and Siam. They carry cocoanuts, copra, cocoanut oil, coir and coir-mattings from Ceylon to Malabar, Burma, Siam and Tuticorin, and to the east cost of Madras, and carry from India foodgranis, piece-goods and other general cargo. They bring rice from Burma.

These ships give a fine streamlining appearance and are amongst the strongest of the Indian ships. They are, however, not often seen on the west coast of India above Malabar; but they can be sent to any part of the world if necessary.

The description of the various types of 'ships given above should give a fair idea of the types of the ships and their capacity. at present operating on the west coast of India. Some variation may, however, be found, now and again, to suit local conditions.

It is not intended here to make any invidious distinction between the various ships constructed in India. But it can be said with a certain degree of definiteness that the Cutch-Kathiawar-Sind, Tuticorin, Jaffna-Madras-Cocanada and Gujerat Batela ships are of the finest and strongest construction and are at the same time economical in running when large cargoes are to be handled. Others come closely behind them in durability and efficiency, although the Malabar type of ships may make better speed. The first group as well as Gujerat Batelas can stand any rough

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weather admirably well, while the latter group (Malabar and Ratnagiri type) may be credited with greater speed. The former can travel to any part of the world, as actually they used to do in ancient and even immediate past, while the latter would require a lot of refitting and adjustment in addition to radical reinforcement in construction before they can embark on such a venture. It is true that the ships of the latter group have stood the test of time, and many of them have grown grey in the service of mankind. But such hoary figures have only coastal exploits to their credit in recent times and hardly, if ever, they have scoured other seas of the world after the middle of the 19th century. And all this is so despite the fact that some of the best types of Cutch ships are actually constructed in Malabar yards at Kasaragod and Calicut. But it should be noted that the very construction of the Malabar ships itself is meant to cater to the coastal demand rather than to the foreign one. If they decide to enter the field of foreign trade, they may build stronger ships. In fact they had done so in the past when their ships used to visit foreign lands before the 19th century. It is possible that if efforts are made, ships of strength equal to Cutch-Kathiawar-Sind type can also be built in the Thana-Ratnagiri and Malabar Yards. There is no reason why such a result should not be achieved, if the shipbuilders there are given an opportunity to prove their merits under favourable conditions.

Number of Ships.

The number of sea-going ships at present operating on the west coast of India is about 5300 in all. The distribution according to different centres of operation and not necessari-

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ly according to registration at different ports, is approximately as below :—

PORT.		No. OF VESSELS.
Karachi	..	400
Cutch-Mandvi	..	200
Kathiawar	..	700
Bombay	..	800
Gujerat	..	400
Thana-Coloba	..	200
Ratnagiri	..	700
Marmagoa	..	200
South Kanara, (Honawar-Karwar)	..	300
Malabar	..	900
Alleppey-Trivandrum	..	200
Tuticorin	..	300
	Total	5,300

It is difficult to ascertain the exact number of ships registered at each port which are actually operating at present. But the above can be taken as a fairly correct estimate of the ships operating on the west coast of India. During the last storm in May 1943, about 200 vessels of all description were reported sunk and some more wrecked on the Ratnagiri-Goa-Malabar Coast, of which 25% may be small non-seagoing ones. Thus the total number of seagoing ships might have been reduced by about 150. But on the other hand, there is a considerable shipbuilding activity going on since 1941 at all centres which must have produced several hundred more ships during 1943. The Sorley Committee Report estimates about 4700 vessels operating on the west coast of India during the middle of 1942. Later construction would thus increase the number by about 700 to 800 bringing the total, after making an allowance for the sinkings to about 5200 to 5300 which is about the same as estimated above.

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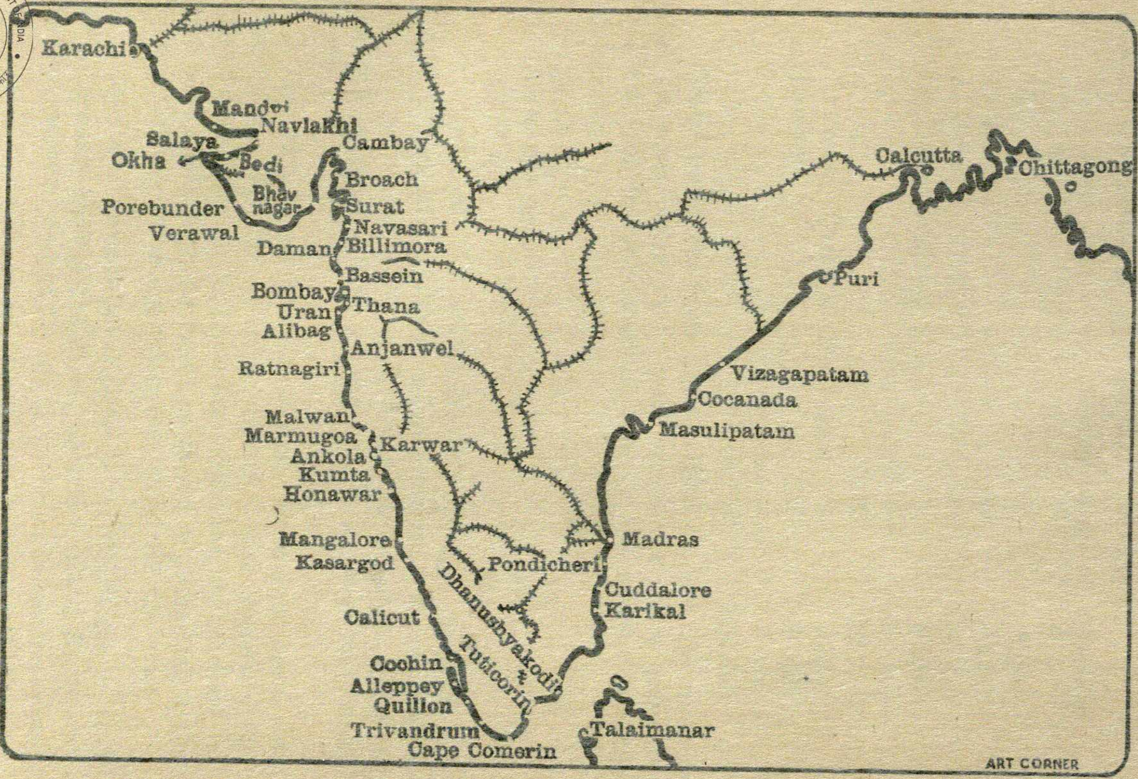

Map. showing the Western, Southern and Eastern parts of the Indian peninsula, The distribution according to tonnage as made by the Sorley Committee is as below :—

Registered Tonnage.	No. of ships.	Tonnage.
10-25 tons	1,281	22,399
26-50 „	1,443	54,104
51-100 „	661	46,270
Over 100 tons	183	23,948
	3,568	1,46,721 Tons
Estimated Cutch & Bhavnagar	400	20,000
Bombay	800	40,000
	4,768	2,06,721

These estimates were made in 1941-42. But the number has increased since then. And so, to the above estimate we can add the following number in the respective categories :—

26 to 50 tons	300
51 to 100 tons	300
All others	200

We take only the second and third groups (26 to 50 and 51 to 100) as having shown a large increase, because, most of the new construction is in those two groups, as their tonnage is most suitable for the coastal traffic in its present state.

The writer does not think that there has been any substantial increase in other classes. And therefore the present estimate of 5,300 as the total number of ships on the west coast may be taken as fairly approximating the actual number of sea-going sailing ships on the coast.

However, out of these ships, only about 90% can be said to be actually sailing out to sea, as there would be several in the category of 10 to 25 tons capacity which do not usually sail out to sea far away. Therefore the ships available for coastal trade at any one moment may be taken as 4,770 although the total number may be taken as 5,300.

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CHAPTER III.

SHIPBUILDING AND ITS COST.

Having explained the various types of ships operating on the west coast of India, let us now briefly refer to the cost of construction of those ships.

In doing this we are mainly devoting our attention to the survey of the typical Indian ships, taking an Indian ship for our illustration for calculating the approximate cost of construction.

Although this part of the subject may be considered out of the scope of this book which concerns mainly with the traffic side of the sailing ships, some idea of construction, periodical paintings and repairs of the ships would be of great assistance in understanding the business in general.

The construction of ships is not a new art to the Indians, and shipbuilding was one of the proudest industries of India. India is essentially a Sea Power with a vast coastline extending over 3000 miles, and shipping, both mercantile and naval, is not merely a luxury but a necessity for her. And as such, until the steamship made its appearance in Indian and other waters, India-built ships owned, manned and maintained by Indians braved all dangers of the journey and travelled practically all over the then known world, often under the greatest handicaps placed by foreigners in their path. There are indications that in the west the Indians visited the east coast of Mexico. In the east they visited regularly Malaya, Java, Sumatra and Spice Islands, Philippine Islands and China. They carried both cargo and passengers. Some time back a reference was made to the story of some shipwrecked Indians on the Norwegian coast in Europe. And the fact that the British Admiralty got sailing ships built in the Bombay docks both as warships and mercantile marine ships before, during and even after the Napoleonic War is a proof of the efficiency and strength of the Indian ships. In fact, it was found cheaper by the British people

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to get their naval and cargo ships built out of Indian teak and other woods in India than in England, with the added benefit that the maintenance cost of Indian ships was lower and their longevity longer than the British-built ships out of the vaunted oak tree in England. Some Indian ships had crossed the four-score mark, and Col. Walker who strongly advocated the building of sailing ships in India for British Navy and British Mercantile Marine pointed out that these ships could reach a century mark. Lord Wellesley was also a strong advocate of this policy, and he got several ships built in India for the East India Company which raised a storm of protest from British shipbuilders with the result that the Parliament was made to act to throttle the growth of Indian shipping and shipbuilding. But the East India Company could not do without the aid and co-operation of their Indian shipwrights. A reference is available that one Mr. Dudley of the East India Company, who was sent to Surat to supervise the construction of one of the ships of the Company under the foremanship of Lowjee Nusserwanjee Wadia, was so enamoured of Lowjee's skill and craftsmanship that he secured the services of Lowjee for the Company and brought him over to Bombay for establishing the Company's yards there and to build ships under his supervision. And a large number of ships for the Company even up to a capacity of 2300 tons went out of the Company's yard at Bombay, so that Indian-built naval ships participated in the naval engagements of Britain in European waters, and cargo and passenger vessels formed proudest units of Britain's Mercantile Marine. Both secured the highest encomiums in both the fields.

But there was not one Lowjee. There were hundreds of Lowjees in India amongst the Parsis, Hindus and Mahomedans, building ships for cargo and passenger services maintained by other private British traders and Indian merchants. They also built ships for the British navy and British Mercantile Marine. Records of all these and other ships built in India, both on her western as well as southern and eastern coasts, and manned and run by

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Indians in the case of Indian-owned ships, are so glorious and brilliant that they fill the most illuminating pages of the history of India of the pre-steam days, that is, prior to the period in the nineteenth century when the systematic suppression of Indian shipping and Indian shipbuilding was begun by the British Government in the interest of British shipowners and British shipbuilders. These records go to show that the foreigners rather learnt the art of shipbuilding from Indian shipwrights than that they taught it to the Indians. Lowjee was not brought from Surat to Bombay to learn the art from the Company's shipwrights in Bombay, but apparently to teach their European shipwrights the proud art of India which built ships that could last over eighty years—in some cases over 100 years—and which hardly required any heavy repairs equivalent to almost complete renewal of the ship, such as what the European-built ships needed at least after every 12 years.

Apart from those connected with the Company, there were several other foreign merchants, Indian merchants and Indian kings who maintained very powerful fleets, both naval and mercantile. Thus, naval ships were built by the Moghul Emperors and by Shivaji the Great, the Mahratta Emperor, in the 17th century, skilfully fitted with guns. Shivaji's fleet was reputed to consist of 500 warships of all description. With this he practically ruled over the sea from Broach and Cambay in the north to Calicut in the south. He lowered the sea-supremacy of the foreigners on the Indian coast of that time; and although he could not eradicate their influence entirely from the coast, they had had to confine themselves within the narrow limits of Surat and Broach in the north, Marmagoa Fort in the south, and Bassein Fort in the Thana District near Bombay in the centre. Even the Bassein Fort was later stormed and captured in 1739 by the Mahrattas under Chimnaji Appa with the aid of naval ships built and manned by Indians.

This is enough to show that first-class ship-designing and shipbuilding brains and skill are natural to India. With the coast of India extending over 3,000 miles, navigation had always been a part of the life of the Indian people, at least of those who lived near the coast. Thus, the Sindhis (Jats etc.) of Sind, the Cutchis and Kathiawaris, the Gujeratis; the Kolis and the Bhandaris of Kolaba and Ratnagiri Districts; the Malabaris, the Malayalis on the west coast; and the Tamils, the Telangis, the Bengalis and the Chittagonians of the east coast, have to their credit the constructional and navigation exploits of the most brilliant type as would do credit to any country in the world. In fact it can be proved from records that Indian ships in the 17th, 18th and even in the 19th centuries, and perhaps even before that period, were unequalled in the whole world in point of longevity, size and economy in maintaining them. They required very little repairs in their long life. The Parsis distinguished themselves mainly in designing and constructing soundest ships so much so that the name of "Wadia" has become synonymous with "designer" and "builder" of ships. They also undertook long sea voyages on trading expeditions, and the glorious voyages to the Far East of Framji Cowasji, his brother Rustomji Cowasji, the latter's sons Dadabhoy Rustomji and Maneckji Rustomji—who were all decendants of Rustomjee Cowasjee Banajee—and also the voyages of Sir Jamshetji Jeejeebhoy the philanthropic founder of the House of Jamshetji Jeejeebhoys reminiscent of the proverbial voyages of Sindbad the sailor immortalised in the Arabian Nights, form memorable chapters of Indian history. The founders of the present Houses of Sir Cowasjee Jehangirs and Readymoneys are the famous Rustomji Cawasji Banaji and his sons mentioned above.

Similarly, Sir Jamshetji Jeejeebhoy's partner, Motichand Amichand, originally of Cambay but who later established at Bombay, owned a fleet of about 40 ships of capacity from 600 to 1000 tons each. These ships included fine passenger ships also. He actually got about 30 of these ships built under his own supervision at Daman and Bombay, and further developed shipbuilding at

Mahuwa owing to the nearness of durable timber in the vicinity of Girnar. He traded with countries both in the west and in the east. In the east, he traded with Burma, Java, Sumatra and China, and carried his cargo in his own ships. In the west, his ships visited Europe, Africa, Arabia, Persia, Zanzibar, Mozambique and Madagascar and other known places on that side. In fact, he was known in his days as the "Mighty Ruler of the Indian Ocean". His association with Hormusji Wadia family—which started from the time of his father who was their broker—was so intimate that on the death of Hormusji Wadia, Motichand was appointed the sole Trustee of the Wadia family estates and he discharged his duties honestly to a degree and handed over the property added with further emoluments to Hormusji's son when the latter came of age. He was called by the family as "Motikaka".* He was a multi-millionaire and a leader of the mercantile community of his time (early 19th century). The illustrious founders of the Bombay Steam Navigation Company who in pre-steam days were very big and influential owners of sailing vessels, had also very extensive shipping and trading business with Arabia, Persia, Egypt, East Coast of Africa and West Coast of Madagascar. The two famous brothers, Hajee Cassum Yusuf and Hajee Hasham Yusuf were, with their father, great figures in this line of trade. Haji Ismail and Hajee Ahmed were the sons of Hajee Hasham the Sailor, and they bravely followed in the footsteps of their father and uncle and ran both sailing ships and steamships. The same work was nobly carried by Emir Sir Mohmud

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* Ah? Where do you find this kind of communal amity in these days? Despite stricter religious observance by each Indian Community in the past, did not there exist a real bond of comradeship divested of religious fanaticism? There was no such thing as Hindu, Parsi or Muslim then. They approached each other as man to man, and as Indian to Indian. But now with so called "Civilization" we have become more narrow-minded and think in terms of religion instead in the name of Indian nation. Oh, when would these conditions change in this fanatically-torn India which is now intended by some fanatics to be vivisected into communal divisions. Let them read how our ancestors developed that bond of communal harmony and Indian nationhood when under the heels of foreign adventurers in the past.—K. B. V.

Yusuf, the grandson of Hasham the Sailor and son of Haji Ismail of Bombay and Novha. And although Sir Mohmud has now retired from business, he still maintains sailing ships managed by his son, Mr. Abdul Rehman, together with several other shipping interests and institutions. The "Marine College and Seamen's Orphanage" at Novha will always remain a standing monument to his memory indicating his solicitude for Indian shipping in general and Indian seamen in particular. His son, Mr. Abdul Rehman, who has now relieved his father who is 70, has taken upon his shoulders the burdens of traditions and responsibilities of this ancient House, and even though the business is now thoroughly modernised, their keen interest in Indian shipping by sailing vessels is visible in all their acts and activities.

Another name familiar to the trade of the 19th century is that of Vishram Khimji who was born in 1845 and died in 1917. He traded both with China and Africa as well as with Arabia and Persia. He built his ships at Salaya (Nawanagar State) but had his seat of business at Bombay. Later he established at Karachi. His sons Moolji Vishram and Madhavji Vishram are still alive and they carried on their ancestral trade valiantly despite the competition of steamers. His grandsons, that is, sons of Moolji and Madhavji Vishram are following in the footsteps of their ancestors, and the family even now owns about 25 ships of capacity over 100 tons each. Laljee Lakhmidas of Karachi was another well-known shipowner of that time. His son Mr. Haridas Laljee is well-known in Karachi shipping circles.

Obviously, all the ships owned and employed by these illustrious and representative Indians were all Indian-designed, Indian-built and Indian-manned. In this connection, it should be noted that the Indian adventurers who mainly colonised in Africa and in the islands off the east coast of Africa, came mainly from Gujerat, Kathiawar, Cutch and Sind. Those who went to the east came also from the same regions as well as from

Bengal and the east coast of the Madras Presidency. Those from the west coast of Madras Presidency went also to Africa and settled there. Mr. Ladha Ramji who was the Manager of the millionaire firm of Jayaram Shivji became the Prime Minister of the Sultans of Zanzibar (18th century). Mr. Ladha Ramji was a resident of Cutch, and along with several other millionaire firms from Gujerat, Kathiawar and Cutch controlled the trade of Zanzibar and east African coast, so much that even the Customs Department of Zanzibar was administered by them until they were superseded by the British. It was only after the arrival of the British, French, Dutch and American merchants in those regions that the trade and influence of the Indians there dwindled.

But in one respect, our ancients were a bit behind the Westerners. Although they travelled to all the four corners, they did not develop the art of naval warfare comparable to that developed by the latter. There are, of course some high naval warlike exploits such as those of the Tamils and Telangis who carried on several conquering expeditions to the east and conquered almost all the known countries on that side such as Siam (present Thailand) Indo-China, Java and Sumatra, Malaya and southern islands of the Philippines group like Mindanao and others. The Bengalis had also their equal share of the glory in such conquests. The Mahrattas had actually acquired supremacy over the western peoples in Indian waters. And the cultural conquest of China and Japan in the first few centuries of the Christian era was carried by Buddhist Monks (Bhikshus) who, no doubt, travelled in Indian-built ships to those distant lands, whenever they travelled by sea up to China. The famous Chinese Buddhist pilgrim Fa Hsien who arrived in India about 402 A. D., and returned to China in 414 A. D., made his Indiaward journey by land, but returned to China by sea, having embarked at Ceylon for his journey home. Similarly an Indian Buddhist Monk, Boddhidharma who visited China early in the 5th century

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went there by sea, having landed at Canton in South China. It is presumed that both of them as well as several other Indian and Chinese Monks and pilgrims travelled in Indian ships.

And yet, it will have to be admitted that although Indians could build sailing ships up to the highest Admiralty standards, they did not probably care to develop the art of naval warfare of the same highest order. The result was that with the first impact of the adventurers from the west, most of the Indian-owned ships did not fare well in naval conflicts, and this failure led to the establishment of the European supremacy in Indian waters. It was only Shivaji the Great and after him, Kanhoji Angria (Angre), another Mahratta Commander of Shivaji tradition with most brilliant exploits to his credit, who recovered the position to a very great extent on the west coast and gradually re-established the prestige of the Indians in these waters. Kanhoji Angria was one of the world's best seamen of all times, and an expert fighter in naval warfares.

But it is possible that the supremacy which the Wester-
ers established over the coast of India was not due to any
nefficiency in navigation or want of skill and spirit of the
ndians in naval warfare. It was probably due mainly to
he superior armaments and ammunition of the Western-
rs. It is a well-known fact that Indian kings and emperors
ad to depend upon the foreigners, especially the Portu-
uese, for the supply of guns and ammunition which
urope could at that time produce in abundance. Indians
ad not then developed the art so well. The European ships
ere therefore better fitted and fully equipped with guns
nd ammunition while Indians mainly depended on their
words and spears. So the Westerners could destroy the
dian ships from a distance, while the Indians could not
anything until they actually boarded an opponent's ship.
his could be prevented by the latter by the use of their
ns and therefore, on many occasions, the Indian ships
d to go down fighting. But that does not detract from
e Indians their credit in other ways. And when even with

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these handicaps, they sometimes destroyed the foreign fleets as was done by Shivaji and Kanhoji, their exploits have no doubt greater commendation. Generally speaking therefore the Westerners were able to establish their supremacy over the coast of India rather by their guns and ammunition than by any superior skill in navigation or in naval warfare possessed by them.

This short historical background will go to show that the ship-designing and shipbuilding as well as seafaring abilities are innate and traditional with the Indian people. They were never backward in these matters; and until they were surprised by European steamships, the maritime activities of the Indian people were on par with, if not more varied than those of any other maritime country of the world, although in naval engagements the Indians did not fare so well mainly due to want of guns and ammunition.

The shipbuilding and navigation skill of the Indian people, however, cannot be questioned in any sense whatsoever. They have their glorious records in this line, with inherent skill handed down from generation to generation. The same skill can be converted into building of steamships at any time after some technical training. In this connection, it is to be regretted that the Indians are not given a chance in this domain. And it is a pity that the great scheme at Vizagapatam for the construction of steamships in the Indian-owned and Indian-built yard there under the leadership of that intrepid and enterprising Shipping Magnate, Mr. Walchand Hirachand, Chairman of that national embodiment of Indian Shipping, the Scindia Steam Navigation Co., Ltd., who have sponsored the scheme, did not receive from the British Government the encouragement and support that it deserved, when several more such yards were built in Canada and other places of the British Empire for assistance in the present war. The Indian effort on the other hand received every discouragement with several obstacles in its way which could be cleared only with the Government assistance.

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However, the construction as regards the sailing vessels is not so treated. In fact, the Government has been buying different types of Indian-built ships for war purposes. Various firms are under contract with the Government for building sailing vessels suitable for coastal transport and other purposes, and shipbuilding is going on apace at present.

Apart from this, there is almost a feverish activity all over the west coast for construction of new ships and it is estimated that during 1942 and 1943 about 800 new ships must have been built at the various centres of construction. This construction is going on despite difficulties of obtaining timber, nails and other materials. During 1944, the process, however, will be at a discount, as the stringency in obtaining materials and nails is getting more acute than in the previous years. And yet some addition is bound to be made during the year at the various centres of construction mentioned below.

These centres on the west coast of India are :

1. Sind : **Karachi.**
2. Cutch : **Cutch-Mandvi, Mundra** and Anjar.
3. Kathiawar : **Okha, Salaya, Jodya, Jamnagar** (Bedi), **Sikka, Navlakhi, Porbander, Verawal, Mangrol, Jaffrabad, Navibandar, Mahuwa, Bhavnagar.**
4. Gujerat : **Navsari, Bulsar, Bilimora** and **Daman.**
5. Thana & Kolaba : Bassein, **Thana, Uran** (Mora), **Alibag.**
6. Ratnagiri : Anjanwel, **Ratnagiri, Deogad, Malwan, Vengurla** and **Marmagoa.**
7. North & South Kanara : Karwar, **Kundapur, Ankola,** Honaver, Kumta, **Bhatkal, Mangalore** and **Kasaragod.**
8. Malabar : **Baliapatam,** Tellichery, Cannanore, **Calicut** and Cochin.
9. Southwest India : Alleppey, Trivandrum and **Tuticorin.**

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We have shown in bold letters the important centres of construction where the various types of ships mentioned in the preceding chapter are mainly constructed in their respective localities. These important centres produce ships of the best quality of their type. They are constructed entirely of wood. Iron has not so far been used in the construction of hulls in India; but it was in general use for sailing ships in Europe and America before the steamships made their appearance in those waters. On the other hand, even after the introduction of steam, several wooden steamships were in use in those countries for a long time. But in India wood has been used all along and therefore the locations are decided by the proximity of timber and hereditary skilled labour. We may here add that Okha is a coming centre for ship construction, and after providing the necessary facilities, such as water supply, foodgrains and labour quarters etc., the port can be converted into a fine shipbuilding centre both for steam as well as for sailing ships. Salaya in the Nawanagar State is another such centre.

Materials for Construction.

The materials required for construction are all available in India, and nothing has to be imported.

The principal items required in construction are :—

(1) Timber, (2) Nails, (3) Sail Cloth, (4) Cotton, (5) Paints, varnishes, groundnut oil, fat, fish-oil, lime, etc. (6) Anchor and Chains, (7) Ropes, and (8) Labour.

The other equipments usually required by the sailing ships are :—

Two Side Lights (Red and Green) along with ordinary lamps; Compass, Water Tanks, a Small Boat (Hodi), Cooking Utensils, Tarpaulins, Ropes, Pulleys or Blocks and Leadline with lead. In addition to these, some Kathiawar and Cutch ships carry sextants and charts as well.

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With these materials and equipments the construction of a ship can be easily begun in a shipbuilding yard. Teakwood is generally used for the construction of the hull; but, for masts the Malabar Pukka "Panhai" or "Pooni" wood is preferred. Teakwood is hard and therefore not very suitable. So when heavy winds blow or when storms are on and ships are rolling, the teakwood masts are in danger of cracking being too stiff to bend with the force of the wind. The "Pooni" wood masts on the other hand are not so stiff and therefore best suited for that purpose. They stand the force of wind better and do not easily crack when strained with strong wind. This factor should be carefully noted.

As an illustration, let us consider the construction of a Cutch-Kathiawar type decked vessel of 100 tons capacity. It would take about three and half to four months to complete such a ship. It is not intended here to give the details of the process of construction involved in each part of the vessel. Nor are we discussing the process of designing. ship's architecture and designs form a subject by themselves, and these are outside the scope of our present survey. "How the ships are built" is not our aim here. Our point of illustration is to indicate the materials used in their construction and the cost of such materials in these days. How much it will cost to build a ship of this type is our quest.

Such a vessel measures overall about 75 feet long from the stern to the stem and about 18 feet wide ; but the hold will be only about 50 feet in length inside which is the actual free space for loading cargo. Such a vessel will require materials for construction as detailed below :—

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Material	Quantity	Approximate Per-War Price (before 1939)	Approximate Present-Day (1944) Price
Timber (including Masts)	About 65 tons (Ordinary Malabar Teak	Rs. 5,000	Rs. 17,500
Nails	About 80 cwts.	,, 800	,, 2,200
Ropes	,,	,, 700	,, 1,700
Sail Cloth	,, 900 yards.	,, 550	,, 2,100
Pulleys	,, 30 nos	,, 150	,, 500
Anchors	,, 4 nos	,, 600	,, 2,100
Chains (about 120 ft). ...	,, 4 cwts.	,, 250	,, 730
Wet Paint etc.	,, 1 cwt.	,, 30	,, 125
Lime	,, 10 maunds.	,, 15	,, 50
Linseed Oil (Varnish) ...	,, 10 lbs.	,, 15	,, 50
Fat.	,, 1 cwt.	,, 30	,, 90
Groundnut Oil	,, 2 cwts.	,, 30	,, 100
Fish Oil (Varnish)	,, 2 tins.	,, 15	,, 60
Cotton	,, 250 lbs.	,, 50	,, 125
Compass	,, 1	,, 30	,, 225
Lights	,, 3	,, 50	,, 200
Cooking Utensils	,,	,, 30	,, 150
Flags	,, 4	,, 20	,, 125
Leadline	,, 1	,, 20	,, 100
Labour (Carpenter etc) ...	,,	,, 2,000	,, 6,000
Supervision & Sundries ...	,,	,, 500	,, 1,270
		Rs. 10,885	Rs. 35,500*

It will be seen that the cost of construction has gone up by about 350% over the pre-war prices ; and if the best Malabar teak (if secured by some means) is used, the cost in these days will be about four times the pre-war cost.

We have taken above the best type of Cutch-Kathiawar Vessel provided with decks. An undecked vessel of this type would cost about Rs. 4,000 less, that is, about Rs. 31,000 in these days.

Compared with these, the other types will cost slightly less except the Gujerat Batelas, Arabian Baglas and Tuticorin and Jaffna ships. The Batelas are very solidly built and although flat-bottomed, they can stand the rough weather admirably well at sea, and are at the same time useful for plying in shallow waters. The Gujerat Batelas, though not decked, would cost slightly more than the undecked vessel of the Cutch-Kathiawar type, but if built of Undi wood, the cost will be barely 75% of the one built out of teakwood. These ships are usually undecked, but they can be decked at an additional cost of about Rs. 3000. The cost of Thana-Ratnagiri type ships will be about the same as those of Malabar ships. The cost of the Tuticorin type will be slightly higher than that of the decked ones in the Cutch-Kathiawar type. The Jaffna (Ceylon) type which is the same as the Madras-Cocanada type, will cost about 10% more than the decked ship of the Cutch-Kathiawar type. And the Arabian ships will also cost about 10% more than the decked ships of the Cutch-Kathiawar type.

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* If timber and nails can be obtained cheaper at the Government controlled rates, the cost of construction can be reduced to about Rs. 30,000 — K. B. V.

Let us now reduce these costs of other types of ships to figures as below :—

1.	Gujerat Batelas	Bulsar Teakwood ..	Rs.	33,000
2.	Malabar Manjis (undecked)	Malabar Teakwood ..	„	25,000
3.	Malabar Manjis (undecked)	Undiwood ..	„	19,000
4.	Thana-Ratnagiri (undecked)	Teakwood ..	„	25,000
5.	„	Undiwood ..	„	19,000
6.	Tuticorin Lugger.	Teakwood ..	„	38,000
7.	Madras-Cocanada, Jaffna Barque.	„ ..	„	40,000
8.	Arabian Baglas	„ ..	„	40,000

A diesel oil-engine fitted to any of the above ships which may have been built to stand it, would increase the cost of construction by about Rs. 4,000 in normal times, and about Rs. 10,000 in these days. We do not think, however, that a diesel oil engine can be fitted to the Malabar Manjis and Thana-Ratnagiri Fatemaris without reinforcement of the keel and upper construction of the ships such as sternposts and frames.

Life Of Ships

It will be interesting to guess at the longevity of the above sailing ships. Some of them have outlived three generations of man. If they do not meet with many serious accidents in their career, they can render active service to their owners for even more than 60 years and many have brought glory and gains to their owners in the course of their long careers. In point of longevity, the Cutch-Kathiawar-Sind type, the Arabian type, the Jaffna and Tuticorin ships are consideed by far the best ones, other types coming closely after them. Let us, therefore, put the maximum longevity as below :—

Cutch-Kathiawar Sind	50	Years,	perhaps	up to	65
Arabian	50	,,	,,	,,	65
Gujerat Batelas	45	,,	,,	,,	60
Thana-Ratnagiri	45	,,	,,	,,	60
Malabar	45	,,	,,	,,	60
Tuticorin	50	,,	,,	,,	65

Periodical Repairs and Paintings.

We have given above a fairly representative description of the materials used in construction of vessels and their equipments together with their cost in these days, along with their probable longevity. We may, now, give below the cost of the periodical caulking, painting and lime-wash of the ship (called "chopdan" in Gujerati). The materials required for this repair and painting are : cotton for caulking, wet paint, lime, linseed oil, fat, fish oil, groundnut oil, etc.

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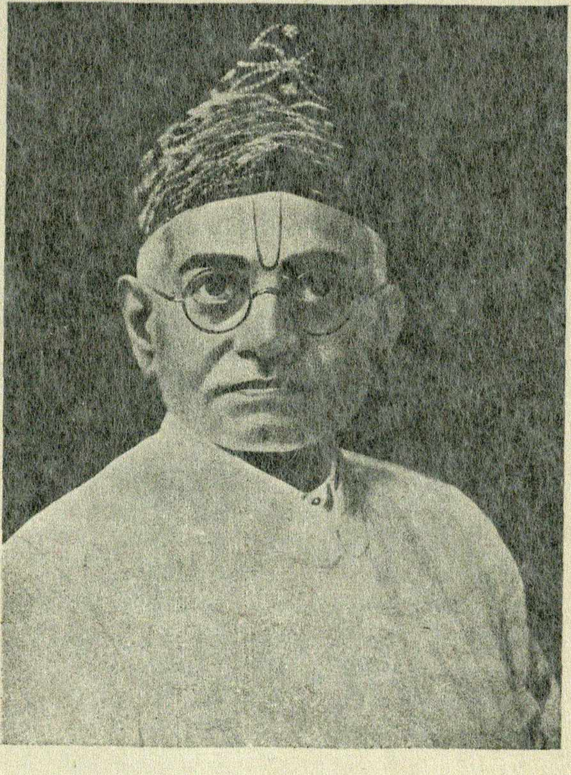

Courtesy: "Scindia House" Opening Number.

The late Seth Narottam Morarjee, one of the Founders of the Scindia Steam Nav. Co. Ltd., and its first Chairman, to whom the Author owes his entry in the Shipping Line.

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The quantities are only about 40% of those required for a new ship. In the case of a new ship, we have estimated the total cost at Rs. 675 per ship for the materials mentioned above. And thus in repainting and caulking the cost will be about 40% of that required for a new ship. That is to say, the amount will be reduced in these days to about Rs. 275 for painting and lime wash per ship at the present rate of materials as against about Rs. 75 in prewar days.

These periodical paintings are carried out usually three times a year, and in some cases, four times.

We have given above some idea of the cost of construction of the ships and their repairs together with the historical background of shipbuilding in India. This should suffice for the purposes of this book.

From this it can be seen that India has got marine and naval architects and designers who can design the best types of sailing ships, and also that India possesses the best type of skilled workmen to execute the work according to designs. This treasure house of skilled labour can be utilized not only for the construction of sailing ships, but with a little more training, it can also be used for the construction of steamships.

Along with this, the necessary capital is there, and what is more, there is the keenest desire on the part of the Indians themselves to develop shipbuilding in India.

What then is wanting to develop this industry in the manner and to the extent that it should be, so that India can be placed on a level with other great shipbuilding countries of the world ?

Let the Government investigate and answer.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CAPTAINS AND THE CREW.

The crew required for the sailing vessels on the west coast of India, types of which are described in Chapter II, are available for employment in any number. They come

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mainly from Sind, Cutch, Kathiawar and Gujerat, as well as from Ratnagiri and Kolaba Districts, and from Kanara and Malabar. The crew of the first group (that is Sind-Cutch-Kathiawar and Gujerat) are capable of being employed in coastal as well as international traffic, while the other types mainly restrict themselves to coastal trade.

The "crew" in Indian language are known by various names as "Khalasis" which means "sailors", "lashkar" which is apparently a corrupt form of the word "lascars"; "Kharwas" as the Hindu sailors from Cutch are known; "Bhadalas" as the Mahomedan sailors are known in Cutch. In Kathiawar the Hindu Khalasis are known as "Kharwas" as in Cutch, while the Mahomedan Khalasis are known as "Kahavalias". In Kolaba as also in Ratnagiri Districts they are known as "Kolis" "Bhandaris", "Bankotis", and "Malwanis" etc. In Malabar, they are known as "Khalasis".

Their captains or commanders are known as "Nakhwas", "Tindels or Tandels" "Nakhudas" and "Sarangs".

Most of the crew are illiterate. They go out to sea while they are in their teens, at times even when they are merely children. The son accompanies the father on the ship and gets his training there. He hardly goes to school to learn the three R's. But he starts learning right away the three R's. of a sailor. The skill in navigation is hereditary and passed on from the father to the son by actual practice without books and codes, along with the procedure of loading and unloading of cargo and embarking and landing passengers. By 15, the boy is fairly well on the path to be a good sailor. And he makes a good sailor in time.

Perhaps the limitations of this system may consist in the fact that the abilities of these sailors are circumscribed by the knowledge, experience and abilities of their fathers or uncles or friends from whom they learn. They do not know what is happening elsewhere in the world. And excepting a few cases, most of the crew are unmindful of

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the qualifications necessary for a modern sailor. They are at the most efficient "obedient servants", and their most experienced captains would be only those who would just pilot a ship safely to port in the traditional manner. He does not know the pros and cons of a particular situation in a scientific manner nor would he be able to make improvements himself. He only acts as his forefathers acted under similar circumstances in the past. He has no new or better methods at his command. He does not want to sail to new seas which his forefathers did not visit. He, in fact, runs in the rut and is satisfied with coastal trade. He has not the imagination nor the ambition to scour far-off foreign seas and foreign lands, as his brother sailors who have been serving in foreign-going steamships have, or his ancient forefathers had.

But within the limited sphere of his operation, the Indian seaman is a compeer of any in the world in ability and courage. True, he has not the advantage of learning what is passing on in the outside world ; but from practical experience he is able to foresee events and take necessary steps. He can always smell a storm without the aid of a chronometer or a barometer. If he can read and write he has everything in him which would enable him to rise to the rank of the best sailor or ship's officer of the world. Although illiterate, there is no doubt of the general efficiency and skill of the Indian sailors in the small domain of their activities. They are very courageous in storm and bad weather, and they feel it is the crowning achievement of their life when they are faced with a big storm which they have had occasion to tide over. Many perish no doubt in this venture. But that does not deter others. Barring a few exceptions, their heart and soul is in their work. Idle days to them are as days in prison without work. They are mostly loyal to the owners, and once they find good treatment meted to them, they will not, as a rule, desert their ships.

And yet with all this, some of them do not appear to be free from the straggling defects of the old free-booting days perhaps characteristic of some type of sailing ship seamen of the past all over the world. Complaints are often heard about the alleged "jettison" and alleged "bad weather" on the voyage, when no bad weather had actually existed, and no jettisoning of the cargo was necessary. If bad weather cannot be advanced as a cause, then a leak here or a crack there, the perennial "gamat", that is, the bilge water of the ship, and this or that defect are the other causes advanced in defence of the alleged jettisoning. These complaints may have basis in fact or they may have none in some cases. There may be perfect genuineness in the causes given by any particular tindel and his crew. But the fact that there is a general belief prevailing amongst shippers, owners, brokers, and others that oftentimes "jettison" arises out of the desire on the part of the tindels and the crew to profit themselves at the expense of the shippers whose cargo is in their charge, nay at their mercy, is sufficient for an inquiry into this aspect of the traffic, preferably by a Government Committee. Such an inquiry is likely to prove of golden value to all concerned. Ways and means can then be found to remove the defects if any in the existing arrangement or procedure, and create a better type of honest men for the traffic.

These defects if they exist at all—may originate from the following causes :—

1. Illiteracy of the crew.
2. Ignorance of the crew of the fact that the cargo in their possession is a "sacred trust".
3. Poor wages, although they may be in keeping with the low freights earned by the owners.
4. Seasonal employment, when they get only 8 or 9 months wages which they have to conserve for twelve months.
5. Perhaps a straggling desire of free-booting ideas of the old to get rich quickly.
6. Want of proper training and Efficiency Certificates.
7. Uncertainty of employment.
8. Keen desire of the crew to support large families

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at home whom they never forget, and for which early marriages are responsible.

9. Desire to make the most of the situation while at sea, so that they can retire in opulence and with property.
10. Absence of organisations or associations of the crew whereby the members themselves can make efforts to build up their morale wherein the owners can co-operate. At present the owners have to struggle with an individual sailor. But with proper organisation, the owners can take up such matters with their organisation.
11. Want of Government supervision by patrols, and want of timely and adequate inquiry in the matter of shipping casualities in coastal sailing vessels.
12. The system of taking all the statements of tindels in their Note of Protest at their face value.

These defects exist, but most of them boil down to two main factors, (1) poor wages and (2) want of education. The sailors do not under such conditions realise that the cargo in their boats is a " sacred trust ". The elimination of these defects would remove the complaints against them. The tindels particularly must be men fairly educated and of high moral character. They should be able to put the matters straight. This qualification is necessary in view of the fact that even the illiterate crew working on steamers with modern captains are not known to have been charged with "jettisoning". Though the crew on steamers come exactly from the same stock as that from which the lascars for sailing vessels are drawn the former show an exemplary behaviour in discipline, obedience, honesty and work. Why is not similar behaviour apparent in the sailing ships trade? This, after all, is an economic question coupled with some standard of literacy. The steamer crew are better behaved because they are well paid and they have no danger of seasonal employment. If permanent employment is assured to the sailing vessel crew and if they are better paid, all the alleged

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defects would disappear. But better pay to the crew means better earnings by owners. Better earning by the owners would depend upon full-time and remunerative employment of their ships. This must depend on protection from the Government. The whole subject therefore runs into a vicious circle. But surely remedies can be found to mend the situation by removing the alleged defects wherever they exist.

Their Organisations.

At present there is no organisation of the sailing ship crew. There is the Seamen's Union. But the members of this union are sailors on steamers. We hardly know of any sailing ship crew joining the seamen's union. There, however, exists one Association, known as Country Craft Trades Association which admits tindels as members but not the crew, other members of the Association being shipowners, brokers, shipping agents and shippers of cargo per sailing ships. The other Association admitting only shipowners is the West Coast of India Sailing Shipowners Association. Both of them have their headquarters in Bombay. Thus, the crew have no Union or Association, and this situation has to be remedied in their case. If such an organisation comes into being, it will do immense good not only to the members but also to the general public. It is expected to lead to an improvement in their status which would greatly benefit them as well as the trade and the owners. The present is the most opportune time for it when this traffic by sailing vessels is at a premium. Concerted efforts have to be made to achieve this end. The shipowners need not be afraid of an organisation of this kind, that is, an organisation for the crew. On the other hand, as anywhere else, it would be preferable for the shipowners to deal with an organised body with all its defects and limitations rather than with individual members of the crew. Such an organisation of the crew would no doubt help to raise the morale and standard of efficiency of the sailors, since a sailor coming from an Union of the sailing ships crew would be

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guaranteed by the Union which would be responsible for his conduct. And the attendent rise in his morale will be a distinct gain. However, as we have to deal with uneducated men who have very conservative notions, it will be very difficult, if not impossible, to form an association for the entire west coast from Karachi to Tuticorin. In the first instance there should be a separate association for each Province or a specified area, and when such associations are firmly established attempt should be made to have a Federal Association consisting of representatives of various associations.

Their Remuneration

The question of the wages of the crew and the tindels is a complex one, because no uniform system exists in their case. The seasonal employment makes the problem more difficult. The crew and the tindels are engaged usually in the month of June for the next season which begins in August in the parts north of Bombay, but in October in the parts south of Bombay.

They are engaged either on working partnership basis or on monthly wages. But in any case the wages and other remuneration given to the crew are on the whole poor although the same are in keeping with the low freights obtained by the sailing ships. In these days rates of freight have risen no doubt as a result of rise in wages due to increased cost of living. But the relative standard has not been altered. The rise in wages is to a large extent due to the rise in prices but certainly it is not in keeping with the rise in prices. While in most cases of articles of food, the rise is about 250% to 300% over 1940-41 level, the wages at the most have risen by about 100% only over the 1940-41 standard, but by 300% over the peacetime standards. And yet the rates of freight have not risen proportionately. Nor is the rise in wages and allowance of the crew in proportion to the Dearness Allowance paid to the workers in other lines and industries, as, for instance, in the Textile trade. Take the case of rice and bajri, the staple food of the crew, and let us take the market and not the controlled rates. It will be seen that while the type of rice eaten by the crew could be bought in prewar days at 7 to 8 lbs. per rupee, to-day only 2½ lbs. to 3 lbs. of rice can be bought per rupee. Similarly only 3 to 3½ lbs. of bajri can be had per rupee against 7 to 8 lbs. before the war. Moreover the quality of both bajri and rice has deteriorated, since large quantities of dirt, dust, stone and rotten grains are found mixed in rice and bajri sold in the market. These factors unwittingly add to the increased cost of living of the crew. And thus the rise in wages is on the one hand still lower than the enormous rise in prices while on the other hand the rates of freight are still low in comparison with this rise in wages.

The Wages

The wages at present (1944) paid to the tindels (captains) and the crew together with the allowances are given below:—

Rating :	Wages per month	Allowance per month	Total per month.
Tindel:	Rs. 70	Rs. 30	Rs. 100
Crew	„ 35	„ 22-8-0	„ 57-8-0

The relative wages and allowances per month in normal times (up to 1938) were as below :—

Tindel :	Rs. 20	Rs. 15	Rs. 35
Crew	„ 12	„ 7-8-0	„ 19-8-0

The relative figures in 1943 were :—

Tindel	Rs. 60	Rs. 30	Rs. 90
Crew	„ 30	„ 17	„ 47

In 1941 and 1942, the average wages and allowance per month were approximately as below :—

Tindel :	Rs. 40	Rs. 20	Rs. 60
Crew	„ 15	„ 12	„ 27

It is clear from the above figures that the wages and allowance have gone up by about 300% over the prewar level. Over and above these, an allowance called "dharmani" is paid to the tindel and the crew by owners in some parts on the west coast. This is not however a

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common feature, as the owners in Cutch and Kathiawar do not usually pay the same. This "dharmani" allowance is paid to the tindel and the crew at the time of sailing. The object is to keep the crew loyal and industrious, and also to make them look carefully after the cargo in their charge. This allowance does not usually exceed a rupee or two per crew per trip, and Rs. 5 to the tindel. It may increase their total earnings by about 5 to 6%. Thus their monthly wages may also be said to be proportionately increased by 5 to 6%.

In some cases, no definite wages are paid to the tindel and the crew. The ships are often run on the basis of industrial or business partnership wherein the tindels and the crew become working partners of the owners. The owner foots the bill of expenses in the initial voyage, and then the tindel manages the ship for the season. At the end of the season or at the conclusion of each voyage, the owner is paid one-third share of the ship's earnings in the form of the charter hire (As. 5|3 in the rupee as they put it) and the rest is taken by the tindel for the payment of the wages of the crew and for meeting the expenses of the ship. In this system, the tindel after meeting the expenses of the ship distributes the balance left out of the two-third amount of the total earnings amongst the crew and himself in a stated proportion, the tindel always getting proportionately higher wages. Major repairs are done by the owners, but minor ones are attended by the tindels and the crew.

This system is beneficial to the owners, as they have not to worry about the running of the ships and finding employment for them. The tindel manages all this, and tries his best to get quick despatches. No more time is spent in port than is necessary. The members of the crew become equally industrious, and dereliction of duty on the part of the crew is hardly noticeable.

Thus, from the point of view of all concerned, the business working partnership system appears to be beneficial provided however the tindel and the crew are honest men.

Their Powers and Duties.

The powers and duties of the tindels and the crew of a sailing ship are more varied and in some cases different from those of the captain and the crew of a steamship.

The captain of a steamship, for instance, has full powers in connection with the business carried on by the ship to act as he likes best according to his discretion only when he is in a port where the owners have no agents. Although the captain of a steamship is the owner's agent in such places and is free to act as best he can, he nevertheless has to communicate with the owners by telegrams for instructions in several matters. But the tindel of a sailing ship although illiterate usually acts as he thinks best even without consulting his owners. Besides, he is also the owner's representative or agent for the disposal of the owner's cargo abroad or for the purchase of cargo from foreign countries on owner's account. Even in home ports, the tindel often arranges charter or secures cargo for his ship through brokers and fixes rates of charter hire or freight without consulting his owner even when such a tindel is merely an employee of the owner, and not a working partner. Very often the owner himself would ask an intelligent tindel, when broker is not employed or broker has failed to secure cargo, to try for the cargo in the market.

Besides this, the tindel on occasions enters and clears his ship himself, and also buys all his provisions and other requirements himself. Various other similar duties are performed by him which a steamship captain is not expected to do. In a foreign port, especially, the tindel is far more independent than the steamship captain. This is perhaps due to the fact that the tindels are mostly illiterate and unable to despatch letters or telegrams themselves. And although in some cases, they are accompanied by "Malums" that is, a man of the position of captain who knows the distant waters and who is a literate man, a sort

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of Purser, the owners prefer to leave things more to the discretion of the tindel than to bind him to consult them by telegrams or post. Very often, the owner finds the telegraphic expenses also too high for the small freight earned and the owner warns the tindel against taking recourse to telegrams unless in the extreme circumstances. The tindels being mostly illiterate, they have to find somebody to draft their telegrams as well to read those received. This is avoided by the owners by giving tindels full discretion.

Such and similar considerations usually prevail with the owners of sailing vessels to concede to their tindels full powers which the owners themselves possess. On the sea, the tindels like the captains of steamships have absolute powers in the matter of navigation, and wherever the safety of the ship is concerned, the tindel's word and discretion as those of the captain of a steamship are final. Thus, possessed of all the powers in respect of navigation and seaworthiness of the ship and with almost full powers as exercised by the owners in respect of general business of the ship, the tindel of a sailing ship has greater power, authority and duties than the captain of a steamship.

More work in consequence is expected of him.

In the matter of repairs to the ship, the tindel personally works on his ship, the entire construction of which he knows well. The captain of a steamship would not touch a nail or a plate personally. All this is done by the contractors or by a smith or a carpenter or the crew. But the tindel of a sailing vessel would himself wield a screwdriver or a hammer or a saw or a scythe and get all his crew to work even when in port to repair his ship. He is an architect, a carpenter, a blacksmith and a repairing expert, all combined in one.

Besides this, he loads and discharges all the cargo with the assistance of his crew. There are no stevedores to do the job. He keeps all accounts and delivers the cargo at the destination.

Even in the matter of employment of the crew, the

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tindel has complete power. He has his own gangs or "lashkar" of the crew. He fixes with the owners their wages only, but does all the rest himself. If he goes, the crew also desert the ship with him. He is also their Quarter Master General and Chief Steward, and the owners pay to the tindel all the "bhatta" or "ration" amounts payable to the crew. He buys all provisions and feeds the crew.

The tindel of a sailing ship therefore in the first place effectively displaces the owner and wields almost absolute power in port as he does at sea, except in the matter of securing cargo for his ship which the brokers often do. He is the father to his crew, and the architect of his ship, and acts also as the buying and selling agent for his owner. In fact there is no function connected with the ship and its business which he does not perform except the routine of the owner's office. And thus by his multifarious duties and activities connected with his ship which he loves so much, the tindel of a sailing ship is as important a functionary as the owner himself, or perhaps even more important than the latter.

The crew of the sailing vessels are also hardworking men. They assist their tindel not only in the management of the ship but also in repairing same. All loading and unloading of the cargo is done by them under the supervision of the tindel without the assistance of stevedores. All stowage is done by them. They repair and paint the ship, stitch the sails, make the ropes and perform all and sundry work in connection with the ship. They generally observe the discipline of the ship to whatever extent it exists, and breaches of discipline are scarcely heard. Only in one respect they appear to enjoy complete freedom, that is, in respect of desertion. They desert their ships at their sweet will and go unpunished. There is no law to prevent or to punish them for such desertions, and if this is checked, there will be no complaints heard about them in matters of discipline and general conduct. Even this defect will disappear with the formation of their associations at important centres, as such bodies naturally will not tolerate any negligence by the crew in their duties. Development in this direction is therefore desirable.

CHAPTER V.

CHARTERING AND ITS ORGANISATION.

Chartering of a sailing ship is not a very difficult or cumbrous process as in the case of steamship.

In the latter case, a prospective charterer has to proceed by stated methods and usually approach the owners through brokers. But even if not so approached, the owner usually makes provision for his brokers. But in the case of sailing vessel, one can charter a ship directly from the owner or even from the captain or tindel of a ship. It is an easy and often a direct process.

There are usually two or three classes of merchants who charter sailing vessels. One class consists of merchants who have sufficient cargo of their own to provide a full load for the ship and have organisation at the port of despatch and the port of destination to perform all the formalities of Port and Customs and for loading and unloading cargo. Some merchants of this class own ships and use them for their own goods. The other class is known as "Adatiya" or importers' agents at small or large exporting centres who buy goods and charter ships for carrying same on account of their clients living at the other end of the proposed voyage. We may call them "Commission Agents". But chartering an entire ship presupposes a full load of cargo, as the shipowners have to be paid for the full load even if partially loaded. In both cases therefore the exporter arranges for full load as far as possible.

But more often than not, and particularly at small ports, a single merchant or a single agent is unable to secure a full load for the ships chartered by him, and therefore a third set of merchants, something like an entrepreneur or Managing Agent in industries and commerce,

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has come into being in the sailing vessel trade, as in the steamship traffic. Such merchants are known as Shipping Agents. This class of intermediaries is essential for the owners and particularly to the tindels, as not all of them know the sources of cargo. The merchants feel shy to entrust their valuable cargo to the tindel and the crew of the ship and deal directly with such unknown people.

Another most cogent reason is that the tindel and the crew are mostly illiterate and they themselves find it very difficult to pass through the formalities laid down by the Ports, Customs and other Government and local authorities at the exporting and importing centres. The owner therefore prefers to charter his ship to a middleman, the Shipping Agent. The latter often charters a ship for the whole season at a fixed sum or for an individual trip or a succession of trips. In this way, the Shipping Agent secures a ship and allocates space on the ship to various exporters at current rates of freight which are usually higher than charter rates payable to the owners, as the former include the commission of the Shipping Agent. The owner of the ship and the tindel willingly concede this difference in freight to the Shipping Agent in return for the services rendered by him in securing cargo, passing same through the Customs and Port, deliverying the same at the destination and performing various other formalities at the other end of the journey. The only responsibility of the tindel is to carry the cargo safely to the other end.

Thus in practice, the Shipping Agent is one who charters ships from their owners at a certain rate and uses them for carrying cargo belonging to different shippers at a rate higher than the charter rate which includes his remuneration for the services rendered by him. He is thus neither merely a Managing Agent or an entrepreneur, nor purely a middleman. He performs all the functions of a Managing Agent and also acts as a middleman; because, not only does he get a sort of commission for his work and for bringing together the owners and shippers as well as capital and labour, but because he charges higher rates to

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the shippers than what he pays to the owners he also assumes the role of a middleman. He is thus both a Managing Agent and a middleman, and in the sailing vessel traffic, he is more fully so than in the steamship traffic.

And yet in spite of the fact that the Shipping Agent is just a middleman, amongst the people who charter ships, the number of such Shipping Agents is by far the largest, larger than the merchants having their own cargo for shipment and chartering ships themselves for their own cargo and the Commission Agent acting for importers at the other end. The Shipping Agent therefore plays an important role in this traffic and is mainly instrumental in making full use of sailing ships available for employment. He has to provide the organisation necessary for the purpose of the traffic—an office, office-staff trained in Port and Customs work, brokers for securing cargo at the rates of freight fixed by him, preparation of all the necessary forms and documents, despatching the same to destination, attending to all communications by post and telegrams and also to all other work in connection with the business. To cover his remuneration for these services rendered, for securing a reasonable profit in chartering the ships and for making his own investments in the form of advance payments in several cases, the Shipping Agent usually charges between 20 to 25% higher rates of freight to the shippers of cargo than what he pays to the owners of ships when he charters them. The Shipping Agent thus performs an useful function in the trade and fills a gap between the owners and the shippers in various ways in the sailing vessel traffic.

Apart from these three sets of people, there is the fourth class, that of Brokers (or Dalals) for owners who often enter and clear a ship through the Customs if the tindel is unable to do so and when a Shipping Agent has not been employed. These Brokers also act as middlemen between the owners of ships and the Shipping Agents or the Commission Agent or the merchant having his cargo to ship. These "Brokers" or "Dalals" as they are called in the

Indian languages, charge commission at 6¼% or at a rate which varies from As. 6 to As.12 per ton of cargo to be loaded according to the commodity and deducts the same from the amount of freight obtained at the port of shipment from the Shipping Agent, the merchant or the Commission Agent. He is so to say a permanent agent of the owners —not merely a broker as in the steamship traffic—and has full power to charter out the ship at the best possible rates as he thinks fit. The tindel often works under his intructions, and the Dalal also attends to the requirements of the ship which the tindel cannot manage himself. As soon as a ship arrives at a port, the tindel first calls on his permanent Broker with documents in respect of his ship and its cargo. The Broker in his turn passes same on to the Shipping Agent or consignees at the place. He presents import manifests, gets the ship entered inward in the Customs and arranges for discharging the cargo—if the ship has brought any—and then goes about to secure cargo for the return voyage of the ship or for employment in some other direction. He presents Shipping Bills and arranges for loading of cargo. He then gives sailing instructions to the tindel in addition to those given by the shippers or the Shipping Agents to their constituents at destination and "clears" the ship for outward voyage. Often the "entry" and "clearance" are attended to by the Shipping Agent instead of by Brokers. But in the sailing vessel traffic Broker usually does this if the tindel is incapable of doing it .

Thus unlike in the steamship traffic, the Broker in the sailing vessels trade is both a Broker and an Agent for the ships. And yet the owners can, if they wish, charter out their ships directly without making an allowance for brokerage for their brokers.

To summarise, the owners of ships first charter their ships to Shipping Agents or other merchants and Commission Agents having cargo to ship. The Shipping Agent in his turn "charters" out the space piecemeal to various shippers of small parcels of cargo and sees that the cargo

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Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy

Courtesy: Sir Jamshetji Jejeebhoy, Bart., the present Baronet.

This a rather a rare and not usually seen picture of Sir Jamshetji Jejeebhoy, the First Baronet. The picture was made after he was knighted in 1842. The youthful and determined demeanour gives clear indication of the courage required for the voyages of venture that he had undertaken since early 18th century. He was created a Baronet in 1857.

Born: July 15, 1783. **Died: April 14, 1859**

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is delivered at destination to the various consignees through his Agent there. The Brokers help the owners to find employment for their ships and thus bring the owners and the merchants or shipping agents together. The links in this organisation, thus, are practically the same as in the steamship traffic except the fact that the Broker and the shipping agent perform many more functions than those performed by a broker in the steamship traffic. However on some occasions people can hire sailing ships directly from the tindels or owners without the Brokers.

How Chartering is done.

Any one wanting to charter a ship has usually to approach a Broker or a Shipping Agent. The Broker or the Shipping Agent then quotes rates and if agreed upon, a Charter Party known as "Kabala" in the Indian languages is signed by both the parties. Usually Broker or the Dalal has his own form of this "Kabala" and he gets it signed by the charterer and the tindel or owner of the ship, more often by the tindel. This "Kabala" mentions the loading and destination ports, tonnage of the ship, the rate or rates of freight, the tindels' name, registered number of the ship, and if possible the nature of the cargo. But the Kabala or the Charter Party does not mention the lay days to be used in loading and unloading nor does it mention anything about "demurrage" or "despatch". It only mentions that the ship is ready for loading or is about to arrive on such and such a date. Actual loading is then done capriciously according to the convenience of the charterer. Some consignees also use the ships as godowns and take delivery of their cargo as it suits them. These irregularities are due to the fact that no traditions exist in the Indian sailing vessel traffic, whereby the shippers and consignees are required to pay demurrage, or that they are given the benefit of "despatch" money for taking delivery of their cargo earlier than the stipulated period. Of course the latter may happen only in the case of a ship charterered by a single shipper.

Other method in chartering is one when a prospective charterer sends his own men to the "Bunder" or to the wharf to inquire if any ship is available for charter. If one is available, he strikes the bargain with the tindel or the owner of the ship, and the Charter Party or the Kabala is then concluded. Often this is done only verbally and more often than not this "verbal" charter party or Kabala is implicitly observed in spirit and letter by both the parties. In such cases, though the tindel strikes the bargain himself directly, he oftentimes informs his Broker if his services are needed, and then the latter charges his brokerage all the same. The tindel needs the broker for his Customs formalities and Port clearance, and therefore, even if the ship is chartered out by the tindel or the owner directly, the Brokers are needed for the tindels or owners in several cases. The Broker thus also forms an important link in the chartering organisation of the sailing vessel trade. He is practically the permanent Agent of the owner. The duty of a broker in the steamship traffic is finished as soon as the Charter Party is signed. But the Broker in the sailing vessel traffic keeps on watching the loading of cargo as an Agent of the ship. Thus, before the ship is chartered, he is in the role of a Broker or "Dalal", and after the ship is chartered out, he becomes the Agent of the owner. He is paid his brokerage in full at the port of shipment.

The Shipping Agent on the other hand, not only deducts 6¼% out of the total charter hire payable to the shipowners, but also charges as we have seen before higher rates to the shippers of cargo, often to the extent of about 20 to 25% higher than the charter rate payable to the shipowners. This deduction of 6¼% is said to be in exchange for the various services rendered by him to the ship. It is actually the "speed money" to the staff of the Shipping Agent, the Commission Agent or the merchants who export cargo.

Apart from these deductions, the ship has often to pay something for charity and this deduction often comes to

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about one quarter or half anna in the rupee i.e. about 1½ to 3%. The amount thus deducted by the "Dalal" or by the Shipping Agent, is then spent on charity, in various ways and sometimes distributed amongst the staff of the Shipping Agent or Broker if the above 6¼% is not so distributed.

Payment of Charter Hire.

As regards the payment of charter hire by the charterer to the owner, it should be noted that the amount of the hire is divided equally in two parts, and half is paid at the port of shipment and the other half at destination.

As soon as the ship is loaded and the "Satami" or the Cargo Manifest is closed, and the ship is ready to sail, half the total charter hire is paid to the tindel or to the Broker on behalf of the owner if the owner is not present. The other half is payable at the destination by the Brokers' Agent on production by the tindel of an authority from the Broker or the Shipping Agent to pay him the balance hire. Often the Broker or the shipper or the Shipping Agent gives this letter to the consignee of the cargo to pay the tindel the balance hire out of the freight payable by the consignee for his cargo. This happens only when the Broker or the Shipping Agent has no Agent of his own at the destination. The tindel has also to recover the balance of freight from the consignees before delivering cargo. The consignee pays the amount of the charter hire to the tindel, if the latter is authorized to receive out of the balance half of the freight on the cargo imported by him, as the shipper of his cargo at the port of shipment also pays only half the amount of the freight to the Shipping Agent, to the owner or to the Broker. The other half of the cargo freight remains then payable by the consignee at destination at the time of (actually before) the delivery of the cargo. The consignee therefore pays the charter hire to the tindel out of the cargo freight, and then remits the balance, if any left, to the shipper or retains it himself as the case may be according to his arrangement with the shipper.

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It will thus be seen that both charter hire and freight are paid in two equal parts, one-half being paid at the port of shipment and the other half at the port of destination. For that purpose, the tindel receives a "To Pay" letter so to say, for the balance and recovers it from the Broker's Agent or the consignee. This is peculiar to the sailing vessels trade. In the steamship traffic, either full freight is paid at the port of shipment or is "To Pay" at destination before a Delivery Order is granted to the consignee. The reason for this division of payment in the sailing vessel trade seems to be on the one hand the distrust entertained by the shippers and charterers about the tindels which induces them to retain half the freight until a ship has arrived at destination and the cargo is ready for delivery, and on the other hand, the uncertainty as to the safety of the ship itself. As the system of insurance on hull and oftentimes even on cargo carried by sailing ships does not exist extensively even in the present times and did not so exist in the past, this mode of payment seems to have arisen, so that the ship is made responsible to a certain extent for safe delivery of the cargo at destination. And since the shippers would not pay to the charterer full freight for the cargo, the charterer also would not pay full charter hire to the owners. The same happens in the case of an owner accepting shippers' cargo directly. The latter pay only half the freight for the cargo shipped. Thus both the charter hire and cargo freight come to be paid in two equal parts, half at the port of shipment and the balance half at the port of destination. If cargo is lost on the way or jettisoned, the consignee may refuse to pay freight. Freight thus becomes payable only on actual delivery of cargo. In the steamship traffic, freight when payable at destination, is paid just the same whether the ship or cargo is lost or not. But in the sailing vessel traffic the consignee may refuse to pay the balance half of freight if cargo is not delivered to him, unless he has insured the cargo against jettison and|or total loss.

We have confined ourselves in this Chapter to the ex-

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planation of the chartering organisation and the units forming it, as well as to the system of payment of freight and charter hire. Actual rates of freight charged and other related points will be discussed under "Rates" in Chapter XI.

CHAPTER VI.

THE SHIPPING SEASON.

One of the greatest handicaps on the development of the sailing vessel trade is the limited season for its operation. Actually the trade is "seasonal".

Usually the season is taken to be one of 301 days beginning from the Cocoanut Day which falls about the beginning or middle of August. This is just about the time when the southwest monsoon has travelled to the interior of India, leaving the coast and the Arabian Sea fairly calm thereafter. There is, however, very often a disturbance in the month of November, that is, after the end of October when the southwest monsoon recedes from the interior and reaches the coast of India and the Arabian Sea in the west and the Bay of Bengal in the east. At the same time, the northeast monsoon begins to set in and disturbs the atmosphere. The disturbances occur so suddenly that shippers and navigators are often caught unawares, and serious loss of life, ships and cargo is caused. Thereafter the season is fair up to the end of March. But during the months of January, February and March, the force of the northeast monsoonic winds is felt strongly in the Arabian Sea, often accompanied by storm though not by regular rains which the southwest monsoon brings on the west coast. In April the winds change and gradually the southwest monsoonic winds begin to blow and reach their full fury after May, 15. The southwest monsoon actually breaks at Colombo on or about May 20, and reaches Bombay on or about June 7, and Calcutta about June 15. But it visits the Burma coast about May

20. Malabar is reached about the end of May, Kathiawar and Karachi about June 15 to June 30.

The sailing ships follow this trend of the progress of the southwest monsoon for their homeward journey prior to laying-up for the monsoon period. The Malabar and Southern India ships hasten towards Malabar and south in order to reach home before May 15; those from Kathiawar and Karachi try to reach their destination before June 10 and June 15 respectively. The shipowners will not, usually, accept cargo for contrary direction as the crew are anxious to go home during the monsoon and as the ships will encounter rough weather. The Kathiawar ships will not accept cargo from their home ports for Malabar after the middle of March because they know that they would not be able to return home in time after reaching Malabar. Similarly, the Malabar crew will not accept any engagement at any other port after April 30 in any other direction except Malabar however profitable it may be. Besides the owners themselves want their ships in their home waters to refit the same for the next season. They will not keep their ships in distant waters and just send the crew home by rail. This will compel them to maintain their ships in those waters adding to their expenses and depriving them of the opportunity to refit their ships under their own supervision. These considerations lead us to conclude :—

(1) That the shipping season for the ships belonging to the owners residing at ports on the Malabar coast and further south, closes by the end of April. These ships would only load cargo north or south of Malabar, so as to arrive at home ports on or about May 15. No ships belonging to ports near or north of Bombay up to Bilimora will load for Malabar after April 10, as they must themselves return to their home ports before May 25. No Kathiawar, Cutch or Sindh ships will load for Malabar after March 15, as they must also return to their home ports by June 7.

No ships from south of Bombay up to Marmagoa will sail for Malabar after April 20, as they must return to their home ports before May 20. And no ships will sail for Malabar from south of Malabar such as from Colombo and Tuticorin after the 15th of April, as they must return to their home ports before the end of April.

(2) That the season for the ships belonging to the owners residing at ports south of Bombay up to Marmagoa (or Konkan ports) closes by May 10. These ships will not usually load cargo for north to Bombay or Gujerat or to the south for Malabar after April 20, as they must return home before May 20.

Similarly, Malabar ships will not load for these ports after April 20, nor the Kathiawar or Gujerat ships will load for these ports after March 31.

(3) That the shipping season for ships belonging to owners at ports like Surat, Broach, and Cambay as well as Bhavnagar in Kathiawar closes by the middle of April and these ships will not sail out to sea after March 15. They will load at outports for home ports before March 25 so as to arrive at the latter ports before April 15.

(4) That the shipping season opens for the Malabar and southern ships by the end of September or early October; but in practice in right earnest from November.

(5) That the shipping season for Cutch-Kathiawar and Sind ships for the traffic between ports on that side opens by about the end of August; for traffic with Bombay, late in September.

(6) That the shipping season opens for Thana-Ratnagiri and Bombay-Gujerat side by the end of September.

Thus the beginning and the close of the shipping season are not the same for all ships on the west coast, and they depend mainly on the weather conditions in different parts of the coast. The Ratnagiri and Malabar coasts have heavy rainfalls beginning by the end of May and ending practically by the close of September. Often the average is about 150 inches in four months. The rainfall on the Kathiawar and Sind coasts is small, hardly 25 inches in the whole monsoon period. Thus the shipping season on the Ratnagiri-Malabar side is shorter than that on the Kathiawar Sind section of the west coast, Bombay-Gujerat coming in between them.

The Kathiawar shipowners therefore calculate the season of 301 days, that is, 10 months from the Cocoanut Day. The Ratnagiri-Malabar shipowners calculate a season of 250 days practically after the Dusserah day. The Gujerat coast owners calculate the season of 270 days.

Foreign Traffic Season.

Thus far we have restricted ourselves to the weather situation as affecting Indian sailing vessels operating on the west coast of India and engaged in inter-port trade only. But for foreign traffic, specially to the west of India, the shipping season begins late and ends early.

The shipping season for the Indian ships proceeding to the Arabian and Persian Gulf coast ports and for the East African ports begins in November and ends in March. Both the Indian ships (Cutch-Kathiawar-Sind type) and the Arabian ships on an average complete two round voyages in the season except to African ports. Each round voyage takes nearly three and quarter months including lay days (days for loading and discharging). A round voyage to African ports and back takes nearly six months. Only on rare occasions they are able to make an intermediate small trip on the Indian coast between two coastal ports while cargo for foreign ports is being arranged. Anyway, usually no Indian ship leaves Indian coast for the Arabian and Persian Gulf ports before November, nor does an Arabian ship leave its home ports before that month. Similarly no Indian ship will leave Indian coast for Arabian ports after March, since they must return home before the beginning of the monsoon in June. The Arab ships, however, can leave Indian waters even by the end of April, as these ships have to sail for home waters before the monsoons.

Thus, the shipping season for foreign trade mainly to Arabian and Persian Gulf ports like Muscat, Busrah and Khorumshahar is of about six to seven months duration. Often there is traffic with some East African ports and with Mombassa, Mozambique, Zanzibar and other islands. If and when Indian ships accept cargo for these ports, they can make only one trip in the season to these East African ports. In these days, passengers are also being taken in the sailing ships from Kathiawar to African ports, and only one round trip is made by them in a season. During the present season about 75 ships are engaged on this passenger traffic. These ships are usually of capacity over 100 tons. Such ships, however, can make one or two short trips between ports on the Indian coast, prior to or after the East African trip.

During the southwest monsoons, there is no traffic at all on the coast of India by sailing ships. The Northeast Monsoon does not affect shipping on the Indian coast.

CHAPTER VII.

OFFICE ORGANISATION.

For the sailing vessel traffic, office organisation is of a simple nature if the business is intended to be conducted on traditional lines.

Under this system, an office staff of 3 or 4 clerks including an accountant is enough to assist the Seth (the Boss or the Proprietor or the Manager) owning about ten vessels. Especially for peace times, this will be an ideal staff for a shipping company. The procedure is not cumbrous, and is quite short in conformity with small earnings of ships. We have to forget even the elementary procedure which is in vogue in any steamship company. Here is everything simple, especially in normal times, when most of the business on the coast is done by a word of mouth. There is the plain "Kabala" or the "Charter Party" made in some cases only, which is not compressed with any conditions at all. It only mentions the names of the charterer and the owners as well as those of the ship and of the tindel, the registered number and tonnage, the port of loading and destination and the rate of freight. It is just less than a quarter sheet of a foolscap paper. This serves their purpose. Often even this "Kabala" is dispensed with, and a mere word of mouth is considered sufficient for the purpose. But this word of mouth is usually observed implicitly by both the parties. And it is a matter of the greatest pride to the Indians that, despite the alleged free-booting tendency of an insignificantly small number of sailing ship crew, the Indian tindels and crew observe on behalf of their owners this verbal contract made by the owners and strive their best to discharge their duties to the utmost of their abilities.

It is mainly this aspect of the problem—that characteristic of most of the Indian tindels and crew to watch their owner's interests to the utmost of their abilities—that enables an Indian shipowner to simplify his procedure to the barest minimum. It is this aspect of "faith" without formalities that eliminates the necessity of elaborate documents which are considered necessary to the steamship trade. Only those documents are prepared as are absolutely necessary for Customs and Port purposes. Other documents are made out so as just to give an idea to the consignee of the number of packages on board. No Shipping Orders, no Mate's Receipts, no Cargo Manifests, no elaborate sailing letters, no Captain's copy of the Manifest, no Bills of Lading and none of those other formalities which are considered essential to and form part and parcel of the steamship organisation, are prepared. They can be dispensed with, and faith in the tindel and the crew effectively replaces all of them. Therewith expenditure on stationery, printing and on such other heads is eliminated.

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This being the case, the procedure is automatically simplified and thereby the strength of the staff can be reduced to a minimum not exceeding 3 or 4 clerks.

The main items of work performed by them would then be Customs and Port work, keeping accounts of freight earned and charter hire earned or paid, preparing the charter party, securing of cargo directly or through brokers when ships are not chartered out, giving to tindels simple sailing letters addressed to agents and consignees at the outports and keeping other general accounts of the organisation. Thus a shipping company, having about ten sailing vessels operating on the coast and even chartering more for the purpose, can carry on its work with a staff of 3 or 4 members only in peace times.

However, in the case of shipments to foreign ports such as those to the Arabian and Persian Gulf coast ports, to Aden or to African ports, almost a full system of office organisation is adopted by many shipowners. They issue Shipping Orders and Bills of Lading, and also prepare a Manifest of cargo shipped. The last document is necessary to meet the requirements of the foreign Customs.

But even in the case of shipments to foreign countries lot of other intermediate documents are eliminated, such as the weighment and measurement certificates, Mate's Receipts and various other vouchers which would be considered necessary for a steamship company. The procedure is thereby simplified and delays are in consequence avoided.

However, the present wartimes have altered the situation to a great extent.

Shipping by sailing vessels has now become general and everyone in the trade is using these ships for shipment. Before the present war, only a few Indian firms, mainly those having their own ships, used to employ sailing ships for exporting and importing their own cargo. For years before steamships became common on all the routes, such merchants had owned these ships and they could not very well scrap them for nothing after the steamers were intro-

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duced on the coast. The lives of their ships often exceeded 60 years, and these ships had rendered faithful service to their owners. The ships by years of such service had already given to the owners a handsome return for their investments, and the owners therefore had to incur only the maintenance expense to run their ships in peace times. This being the case, sailing ships were not destroyed by them and were mostly in service even after the introduction of steamships and were run mostly by those merchants who had their own cargo to import and export. Besides, the use of sailing vessels for such specialised cargo as tiles, bricks, sand, timber and similar other cargo kept up the incentive for building such ships.

This factor, that is, merchants exporting or importing their own cargo, also explains the reason for the simplicity of the procedure in the case of sailing ships. The cargo to be exported and imported belonged very often to the owner. The owner himself accompanied his ship on occasions. And therefore he naturally dispensed with many of the formalities and documents which have now become routine with the steamship traffic. It would not pay him also to maintain the necessary staff to prepare so many documents in view of his small earnings. The shipping agents followed the lead of the owners and they had also to dispense with such routine matters which they did not think it necessary. All was a question of mutual confidence between the owners or the shipping agents and the crew, or between the owners and the shippers, and the trade went on smoothly without having the necessity of the routine current in the steamship traffic.

But now we have to deal with various types of shippers and to induce them to ship their cargo by sailing vessels. They have been accustomed to dispatch their goods by steamships or by rail, and they feel something missing when they find that they are not given the documents vouching the delivery of their goods to the carriers. The foreign firms, specially, and the Government and Military authorities, would not be assured if they are not given the usual documents as are current in steamship traffic. And it is the experience of the writer that the moment the foreign firms were told that they would be given the usual documents such as Mate's Receipt and Bill of Lading for their cargo shipped by sailing vessels, as are given for cargo carried by steamships, they appeared satisfied by the tangible proofs which they would get in respect of their shipments by sailing vessels, and the sailing ships of several lines secured their cargo without any further hesitation on the part of such foreign firms. The same procedure is expected by Government and Military authorities who ask for the Bill of Lading for the cargo shipped by sailing vessels. The Mate's Receipt and later Bill of Lading in exchange for such a Receipt therefore given to the shippers after shipment of their cargo by sailing ships serve an useful purpose.

Then the cargo manifest simplifies the position considerably, and for the sea-cum-rail traffic specially, it solves most of the difficulties. It is useful for Customs purposes by shortening the procedure of checking the goods shipped. The war has imposed several restrictions on the export and import of cargo, and the cargo manifest facilitates such checking by the authorities whenever needed if it is available for scrutiny. The Mate's Receipt assures the shipper that he has some valid voucher for the cargo that he has delivered, and its value is greater in these days than in ordinary peace times.

These considerations have led several shipping companies and shipping agents engaged in the sailing vessel traffic to adopt the procedure and routine as obtain in the steamship traffic. They therefore prepare almost all the documents that are in vogue in the steamship traffic relating to shipments of cargo by steamers.

They, thus, ask for a written application from a prospective shipper for booking space on a vessel before issuing Shipping Order. They direct the shippers to send along with the cargo Delivery Notes, Boat Notes and other necessary documents. They issue Mate's Receipt on behalf

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of the Tindel and his mate to the shippers after the cargo is shipped on board a vessel. Then they exchange this Mate's Receipt for their Bill of Lading which they issue to the shippers after receiving payment of freight. They then prepare the cargo manifest, a copy of which goes to their Agents at the destination and one copy is given to the tindel. This practically completes the procedure involved in the shipment.

Apart from this, there is the office routine involved in correspondence and accounts. Shipping Accounts are complicated just as the correspondence is. Correspondence is mainly with the Agents and Branches, with the tindels and the crew, with the Port and Customs Authorities regarding entering and clearing ships and other matters, with the importers and exporters, with the Water and Land Police, the supplies of crew, the loading and unloading contractors (Stevedores) and with such other allied agencies and institutions. The Government Shipping Offices at important centres like Bombay have to be kept in touch. This function is performed at outports by the Customs authorities. There is often a lot of correspondence involved in this in a shipping company's office. The Ship's Register (called the "Kaul") has to be maintained by the ship, but all correspondence in respect of this has to be attended to by the Agents or the owners. A fairly voluminous correspondence in a shipping company's office relates to the deliveries of cargo and claims in respect of shortage and damage. And thus the correspondence side of a shipping office assumes a great proportion. Promptness in this matter pays in the long run.

So far as the account side is concerned, equal promptness has to be exercised. As soon as the operations start, the accounts section must not be neglected. Quick decision is necessary in the settlement and allocation of various items. The accounts should be clear and without any undue hedging, because if unnecessary complications are introduced therein, there may be a possibility for mischief by some unscrupulous men connected with the accounts

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section. Clear presentation is what is desired.

The main allocations are usually Operation Accounts and General Accounts.

As against the operation expenses the charter hire or total freight received by the owners is credited. Operation Account is debited with the cost of maintenance of the ships, wages of the tindels, and the crew and their rations and incidental expenses, Port and Customs dues, expenses on loading and unloading of cargo, claims in respect of cargo, insurance and such other allied expenses. Strictly speaking, the owners even whenever they operate their own ships should credit the Operation Account with only the market rate for charter hire for the entire ship and not the actual freight earned for the cargo carried. The latter rate is usually higher, and therefore it would give an exaggerated idea of profit. Usually this is not done, and the entire freight earned by the owners running their own ships is credited to Operation Account and the difference is shown as Working Profit or Working Loss. Really speaking only the difference between the Operation expenses and the charter hire at the current market rate —and not the actual freight earned—should be shown as Working Profit of Working Loss. Thereby there will be left a concealed reserve in the form of the difference between the amount of the charter hire and the actual amount of cargo freight earned. This difference, which may be concidered as the "commission" for the owners for their services like those of a shipping agent, may then be carried to the Profit and Loss Account if desired. And although the result may be the same ultimately, this strict division will enable a company to exercise greater checks on the expenditure more effectively than if the other system is adopted. The margin between the Operation expenses and the actual freight earned is higher than that between those expenses and charter hire. Consequently the shipowner is likely to base his calculations for expenses on larger amount of freight earned by him. If he bases it on the charter hire which is usually lower than

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the amount of actual freight earned, he will have lesser margin at his disposal and he will naturally think of economies, thus ultimately increasing his profit.

This is, of course, mentioned in passing for the guidance of shipping offices, not merely sailing vessel offices but steamship offices as well. And it would be advisable to adopt this practice in the sailing vessel traffic.

All the above considerations would lead us to arrive at an approximate idea of the staff necessary in the present circumstances to man the office of a shipowner, say, having ten sailing vessels of varying size and capacity. We may assume that he has three ships of about 100 tons each, two ships of about 75 tons each, three ships of about 65 tons and two ships of about 50 tons each. The office of such an Indian owner or an Indian shipping company operating on the coast of India who may also occasionally charter other sailing vessels would require the following staff in the present circumstances with remuneration as mentioned below :—

Staff Member:	**Functions.**	**Remuneration.** (Per month)
1 Manager	In-charge of the department.	Rs. 250
1 Assistant Manager.	To assist the Manager; to sign all routine documents and correspondence; charter out own ships, or chartering outside ships; insurance etc.; and all work connected with imported cargo	Rs. 150
1 Accountant.	Entire charge of Accounts.	Rs. 120
2 Bills of Lading and Import Clerks.	To issue Shipping Orders; to prepare Bills of Lading and Cargo Manifests; all documents such as Delivery Orders etc. connected with imported cargo.	Rs. 125 (for two)
2 Accounts Clerks (One Cashier)	To assist the Accountant and keep cash.	Rs 100 (for two)
1 Customs and Port Clerk	Customs & Port work.	Rs. 60

2 Outdoor Supervisors	Loading and Unloading of cargo; securing cargo, and to attend to all outdoor work.	Rs. 125 (for two)
1 Marine Supervisor	Technical work on maintenance, and all related matters.	Rs. 100
1 Stenographer	Stenographer.	Rs. 100
		Rs. 1,130

The total expenses on salaries and remuneration alone would be about Rs. 1,130 per month, say, about Rs. 1,100 per month. Besides this, there are the usual office expenses on rent, peons, postage and telegrams, telephones, rates and taxes, printing and stationery and all the rest, for all of which we can allot an additional expense of about 5% of the total amount of charter hire obtained.

Herebelow is given a specimen of the actual allotment of work made by the writer in his own Company which amplifies the above details. It is reproduced for the guidance of those who wish to start anew in the shipping line :—

The Indian Shipping Industry Ltd.

Distribution of work to be performed by Officers and members of the staff.

Officer or Member:	**Functions.**
The Manager :	1 In-charge of the Department. 2. General Supervision of the business.
The Assistant Manager :	1. Delivery of Import Cargo. 2. All inquiries for marine insurance and correspondence in connection therewith 3. Insurance of our own ships and correspondence connected therewith. 4. All correspondence about import and shipment of cargo on account of the consignees and shippers. 5. Issuing Shipping Orders.

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	6. General routine correspondence of the Department especially with Government Offices. 7 Chartering of ships in consultation with the Manager. 8. General supervision of the Department.
The General Assistant:	1. All work in connection with the quoting of rates, securing cargo for ships and all inquiries in connection therewith. 2. All correspondence with shippers and consignees in consultation with the Assistant Manager, etc. 3. Statistics.
The Marine Supervisor and Traffic Inspector:	1. Maintenance of our ships. 2 Employment of our ships. 3. Attending to inquiries and correspondence from Agents in this connection. 4. All correspondence in connection with traffic at outports. 5. All work in connection with forwarding and despatch of cargo from Bombay and attendance to all the inquiries of forwarding and loading contractors etc. 6. Chartering of ships for cargo in consultation with Assistant Manager. 7. Supervision of loading and unloading of cargo.
The Accountant:	1. All Accounts, Cash and Banking work. 2. Correspondence in connection therewith. 3. Daily Report.
Two Bills of Lading and Import Clerks:	1. Preparing and issuing Bills of Lading. 2. Checking of Mate's Receipts and collection of freight. 3. Calculation of tonnage and amounts of freight. 4 Preparation of Cargo Manifests. 5. Deliveries of imported cargo and recoveries of freight thereon.
Outdoor Supervisors:	1. All outdoor work. 2. Attending to inquiries from merchants at their offices. 3. Maintenance of own ships (under the direction of the Marine Supervisor). 5. Port & Customs work.

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Out-door Supervisors :	1. Supervision of loading and unloading and supervision of deliveries of cargo under the direction of the Marine Supervisor.
The Broker :	1. To secure cargo for the ships. 2. To give daily Market Reports. 3. To keep in touch with competitors. 4. To advise the company about cargo available at outposts.
One General Clerk:	1. To do all general work not covered by the above details of work assigned to each of the above members.
One Stenographer :	1. All typing and filing work.

The above amplification tallies fairly with the details of work mentioned in the list preceding it. It will serve also to indicate the general routine work which is done in a shipping company's office, whether a steamship company or a sailing vessels company interested in the cargo traffic in the present times.

Generally speaking the office staff as stated above should suffice for the purpose of an Indian Shipping Office. The scale of salaries and remuneration is taken on the basis of an Indian Office staffed by Indians. The same may be higher for an European or American staff or for Indians trained abroad. But for normal times, the expenses would be about half the above figures.

We have thus given herein some idea of the usual routine work of the office of a shipping company or shipping agent, and the staff that is usually necessary for the purpose in the present circumstances. Any economies therein may be allowed when the owner himself works in some cases. Depression would reduce the membership of the staff. In normal times smaller staff may suffice for the purpose as the routine will be shortened and simplified. But if it is desired to develop the sailing vessel traffic to the level of steamship traffic, it is necessary to adopt the entire routine of a steamship office as far as possible. This will create amongst the shippers a confidence in the sailing vessel organisation, and the shippers may be induced to entrust their cargo to such vessels even in normal times.

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The only difficulty will be with small and illiterate owners having only one or two small ships, who hardly maintain an office or accounts except those that they can memorise. But if the sailing vessel has to command respect, the office organisation will have to be modernised, and the business will have to be conducted on a larger scale, even if it meant the pooling of resources of individually small owners.

Export and Import Office.

So far we have dealt with the organisation of ship-owner's office. But we may also refer to the office of an Export-Import firm engaged in the exporting to and importing from other places by sailing vessels.

Such an office having annual shipment of, say, about 10,000 tons of cargo of various nature would require the following staff, assuming that Export and Import business of the firm forms only one department of its activities.

1	Departmental Manager	Rs.	150	0	0
1	Accountant	,,	100	0	0
1	Stenographer	,,	100	0	0
1	Customs Clerk	,,	50	0	0
1	Loading & Despatching Clerk..	,,	50	0	0
1	General Clerk	,,	60	0	0
		Rs.	510	0	0

This staff would suffice for the purposes of shipments by sailing vessels by an Export-Import firm.

The Manager will look after the general business, the Accountant will keep accounts and other clerks will obtain shipping orders from shipping companies or shipping agents for shipping the cargo, prepare Delivery Notes or Boat Notes, obtain Mate's Receipts from the ships after the cargo is shipped, prepare Bill of Lading and submit same to the shipping company or shipping agent for signature, and obtain a stamped copy of the B|L (sometimes in duplicate both of which are stamped) along with 2 or 3 other copies. They will then render to the Accountant the accounts with vouchers in respect of each shipment

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after it is completed. Further despatch of the Bill of Lading and the Invoice to the consignees through a Bank is be attended to by the Accountant.

Shipping Agent's Office.

The organisation of Shipping Agent's office will be practically the same as that of a shipowner's office, except that the chartering of outside ships would involve lot of extra work for the shipping agent. Even a shipowner has also to charter ships very often to supplement his fleet; but the shipping agent who is not also a shipowner has particularly to be entirely dependent on chartering. He will naturally stress this side of his activities, other procedure and staff remaining almost entirely the same as that of a shipowner.

Broker's Office.

The Broker of "Dalal" fulfils an important function in the traffic. And yet his office consists of himself, a clerk for outdoor work and an accountant who is also the cashier.

The Broker himself generally attends to the "Kabala" or the Charter Party and answers all inquiries from the charterers. His clerk looks after Customs and Port work whenever required and the Accountant keeps the books and makes payment. The Broker is therefore not encumbered with a large staff which he does not need for his business. Occasionally, he may employ a typist if he has business with foreign firms.

Forwarding and Loading Contractor's Office.

These Contractors (Clearing and Forwarding Agents and Stevedores) form one of the most useful and important links in the traffic.

They arrange to take delivery of the cargo from the godowns of the shippers or from the wharf, arrange necessary trucks and coolies for same, hire lighters or machwas for moving cargo to ships whenever loading midstream, and load same into ships lying either alongside wharf or midstream. They also render similar service to the consignees in respect of the import cargo in the reverse order. A lot of Customs and Port work is involved in these processes which is performed by them.

They require staff of a varied type from a coolie supervisor to loading supervisor. In the office, they would require a Manager, an Accountant, three or four general clerks and three or four outdoor clerks according to the size of the business handled. But a firm having an annual turnover of about Rs. 5,00,000 would require a staff of about 20 to 25 members so as to efficiently handle their constituents' business.

We have thus explained herein the general routine in the line and indicated the staff required for the purpose by various functionaries connected with the sailing ship traffic. The estimate of salaries and the strength of the staff is based on the present wartime scale; but in normal times there would be a substantial reduction therein, in keeping with the reduction in the rates of freight. However, even in the present circumstances, the figure of salaries and the strength of the staff need not be taken as unalterable factors. Variations may be made to suit the conditions of each shipping office.

CHAPTER VIII.

TRAFFIC AND TRAFFIC ROUTES.

After having described the various units and their organisation which make traffic possible, such as the ship itself, its captains and crews, the shipowners, brokers and shipping agents, the chartering methods and the shipping season, we can now proceed to the consideration of the traffic itself and the various routes over which it passes.

The traffic handled by the sailing vessels in these days is quite appreciable and of a varied nature.

The sailing ships are carrying at present almost everything from pin to anchor excepting perhaps specie and bullion. Their utility value for this traffic can hardly be exaggerated. But for these hoary means of transportation,

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the congestion on rail and steamships could hardly have been removed. They have helped to reduce the strain on steamships by carrying such cargo as was carried by steamers in normal times on the coast of India. They have helped to reduce the strain on railways by being able to carry by sea-route that cargo which was normally carried by rail between certain coastal tracts, which are connected by rail as well as by sea. For instance, most of the traffic to Kathiawar although alternatively served by rail can be, and is now, served by sailing vessels. Traffic to Konkan and Malabar is usually served by steamships and sailing vessels in normal times; but a good portion of it is now being handled by the latter ships only. In fact certain types of goods like timber and tiles from Malabar and Kanara, and bricks from Konkan coast are generally carried by sailing vessels even in normal times; and this traffic is supplemented by a host of other articles that are being carried in these days by this class of ships.

Besides this, the sailing vessel has assumed great importance in the Sea-cum-Rail service, so that in addition to the diversion of trade between ports on the west coast from railways to sea routes, the sailing vessels have been used even to carry cargo by sea up to a port nearest to any town and thence by rail to the interior town reached from that port. At present, very great use is therefore made of the sailing vessel for such sea-cum-rail traffic. Especially, over shorter distances on the coast, the sailing ships are of very valuable assistance in these days when steamers are not available or when the steamers find it uneconomical to call at many ports within short distance of each other for small parcels of cargo. But such small parcels may be a full load for sailing ships for one port.

The sailing vessel thus has assumed a role in the coastal traffic which is of vital importance to it.

But even though the sailing vessels have been moving all over the west coast, there are some well-defined routes of traffic followed by them depending mainly on distances, traffic conditions and habitation of the crew. Some ships

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are engaged on a certain route and they will not deviate from it. They move backward and forward in the same route, irrespective whether they get full cargo or half-load only both ways. Most of them would even sail in ballast one way if they have cargo at least the other way. But they will not follow the lead of tramp steamers which can sail from one port to any other port where cargo would be offering. Such steamers would sail from Iceland to New Zealand, or from Timbuctoo to Tipperary according as inducement is offering. The sailing vessel would not do so. Supposing they are plying on Karachi-Kathiawar (Bedi) run, they will stick to it for whatever cargo they get and the crew will not like to leave the route and go elsewhere, say, to Malabar or Colombo or to Bombay. They would rather go back to Karachi from Bedi in ballast. The desire of the crew to be near the places of their habitation and their familiarity of the coast and sea-depths are stated to be the main reasons. This has given rise to a natural division of routes on the west coast. These are :—

I. Karachi-Kathiawar and vice-versa.
II. Karachi-Bombay and vice-versa.
III. Karachi-Gujerat (Kavi, Broach, Cambay, Surat) and vice-versa.
IV. Bombay-Kathiawar (Navlakhi, Bedi, Okha, Porbunder, Veraval and Bhavnagar) and vice-versa.
V. Bombay-Gujerat (Kavi, Broach, Cambay and Surat) and vice-versa.
VI. Bombay-Konkan-Marmagoa and vice-versa.
VII. Bombay-Kanara Malabar and vice-versa.
VIII. Bombay and Kathiawar to Colombo & vice-versa.
IX. Malabar-Gujerat-Kathiawar and vice-versa.
X. Malabar-Tuticorin-Colombo and vice-versa.
XI. Marmagoa-Karachi and vice-versa.
XII. Bombay-Kathiawar-Karachi to Busrah and vice-versa.

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To this may be added the longest route between Malabar (Cochin or Calicut) and Karachi which may be used only in emergency when no steamers are available at all. But it is not an usual route followed by sailing ships being a long one and occupying about two and half months for a round trip, except for carrying tiles and timber from Malabar to Karachi. The ships usually do not like this route, and will not undertake this voyage unless under the greatest inducement. The sailing vessel does not sail straight from Karachi to Malabar over the high seas as the crow flies. They pass nearer the coast from Karachi to Cochin and thus take a long time in completing this voyage of about 1000 miles.

Another point to be noted is that the Malabar-Kathiawar, Malabar-Karachi and Malabar-Gujerat traffic is maintained by the Cutch-Kathiawar and Gujerat ships. The Malabar ships do not participate therein as the Malabar crew are unwilling to sail north of Bombay. And it is only the other ships along with Karachi ships that are available for this long distance traffic. No other ships except the Arabian ships participate in this traffic. Besides the capacity of the ships required for this traffic must also be large, as it will be uneconomical for a small ship to travel this long distance for a small cargo with smaller earning, even if the crew are willing to brave the dangers of a long voyage in a tiny ship. At least a 100-ton ship is necessary for the purpose. The field for securing ships for this traffic therefore is very limited.

It will be seen from the distances between the terminal ports of each of the routes that the longest distances traversed by the sailing vessel in these war times, are between Karachi and Cochin, and between Kathiawar and Cochin, except of course, the route to Tuticorin, Colombo, Busrah or Africa. Usually in normal times, however, they reach ports even more distant than those just mentioned. Of course, only certain kinds of cargoes are moved by sailing vessels even in normal times over such long distances on the coast, such as timber, tiles and cocoanuts in kernel (in bulk). But in these days, sailing ships are used even for the transportation of other cargo as well, over these long distances, and they are meeting a very keenly-felt want in the traffic.

Approximate Sailing Time.

Our next quest is to find out the time taken by sailing ships for covering the distances between any two ports on each route.

It is however very difficult in the case of sailing ships to estimate the time a ship takes to cover a certain distance over any particular route. Like the budget of the Government of India which one Finance Member once described as a "gamble in the rains" the sailing vessel movement is a "gamble in the weather". These movements are entirely dependent on the wind and the weather. This factor raises another complication, that is, not only does the movement and speed depend upon the wind and the weather, but in the same route, the time taken on the outward and inward voyages depends entirely on the prevailing wind, currents and weather. This proceeds from the fact that the favourable breeze for the outward voyage becomes an obstacle for a ship on the inward voyage on the same route during the same part of the season. While the outgoing ship may take 8 days for the voyage, the same ship on the same same route in the same part of the season may take 25 to 30 days or more for an inward voyage. The reason is that the winds and currents in certain parts of the year move in certain stated directions. For instance, from November to March when the North-east Trade Winds are active, the wind blows from the north and is therefore favourable for the ships going southward, say, from Karachi to Bombay or to Malabar, or from Bombay to Malabar, or from Kathiawar to Malabar and south. But during the same period, the wind is unfavourable for ships proceeding northward, say, from Malabar to Bombay, Kathiawar or Karachi. From April to November generally Southwest Monsoon rules the region on the west coast, and therefore, the process is

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reversed. From April and May onwards till November the wind is favourable for ships going northward, say, from Malabar to Bombay. But there is no regular shipping on the coast after May till September owing to the prevalence of the Southwest Monsoon. However, when shipping resumes, a ship going from Malabar to Bombay will take shorter time from September to December than ships going from Bombay southward to Malabar.

Thus, the speed of the ships and the question of their arrival at destination are primarily dependent on the seasonal winds, and secondarily on the directions in which the ships are moving. Consequently, ships cannot be said to be making the same speed both ways on any given route. If on the outward way they cover 60 to 75 miles per day in any one part of the season, they may make only 25 to 30 miles on the return journey by the same route during the same part of the season. If they take, say, 10 days from Bombay to Cochin over the distance of 580 miles from December to April, they take over 22 days and sometimes even 35 days for the return journey from Cochin to Bombay in the same period on account of the adverse wind on the return journey northward. This creates an element of uncertainty in their time of arrival from one or the other direction. To this must be added the periodical weather disturbances which are often not noticeable on land but play a havoc at sea and specially affect sailing ships more than steamers. These disturbances indefinitely delay sailing ships and upset all calculations about their approximate time of arrivals at destination.

This wide difference in the duration of sailing time occupied on each of the two voyages—outward and inward—therefore enters into the factors that determine rates of freight on the inward and|or outward routes.

Taking these factors into consideration, we shall now give here the approximate time taken by a sailing ship, say of a Cutch-Kathiawar type, on the different routes mentioned above and other subsidiary routes. We should however, remember that the type of the ship also has to be taken into account, and that the speed does not necessarily depend upon the size of the ship. It is not necessarily that larger the size higher the speed. But besides weather conditions, speed depends also upon the type of the ship and its sails. Other factors that contribute to speed are the number of masts, the number of sails, and stream-lining used for different types of ships. The sails and the masts which make for speed are fixed in proportion to the size and capacity of the ships. So it does not follow that larger the ship higher the speed. If a ship is of larger size and capacity, its sails and masts are proportionately larger than those of smaller ships, and therefore the factor of speed remains constant. One cannot attach larger sails and greater number of masts to a smaller ship to achieve higher speed. If this is done, they will only blow away the ship which might capsize. Therefore, the speed factor would remain the same for a 'particular' type of ship whether big or small in size, though the speed differs for different types of ships.

Bearing this in mind, we give herebelow the approximate sailing time taken by ships on the west coast:--

ROUTE	Between April & November. No. of sailing days		Between November & April. No. of sailing days	
	Outward Voyage	Inward Voyage	Outward Voyage	Inward Voyage
1. Karachi.				
To Kathiawar (Navlakhi or Bedi)	6	8	8	6
,, Bhavnagar	10	12	12	14
,, Bombay	10	12	12	14
,, Gujerat (Broach)	10	12	10	14
,, Malabar (Cochin)	25	30	20	35
II. Bombay.				
To Karachi	12	10	14	12
,, Kathiawar (Bedi or Navlakhi)	12	10	10	8
,, Gujerat (Broach & Bhavnagar)	4	8	8	6

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„ Marmagoa	8	6	4	8
„ Malabar (Cochin)	18	12	10	22
„ Alleppey	20	13	11	25
„ Tuticorin	30	15	15	35
„ Colombo	30	15	15	35
III. Kathiawar & Cutch Ports. (Northern ports, Kundla, Okha, Bedi and Navlakhi)				
To Karachi	8	6	6	8
„ Bombay	10	12	10	12
„ Gujerat (Broach)	8	10	8	10
„ Marmagoa	14	16	10	16
„ Malabar (Cochin)	20	22	15	26
IV. Kathiawar Ports. (Southern ports, Porbunder, Veraval & Bhavnagar.)				
To Karachi	11	8	8	10
„ Bombay	6	8	6	8
„ Gujerat (Broach)	4	5	5	6
„ Marmagoa	12	14	10	16
„ Malabar (Cochin)	18	20	16	28

NOTE: From Bhavnagar, 3 days more in case of voyage with head-winds.

V. Malabar Ports. (Calicut, Cochin & Alleppey).				
To Quilon	6	2	2	6
„ Trivandrum	7	3	3	7
„ Tuticorin	10	6	6	10
„ Colombo	10	6	6	10
„ Marmagoa	5	8	13	6
„ Konkan Ports (Ratnagiri)	8	10	14	7
„ Bombay	12	18	22	10
„ Kathiawar Ports	14	22	26	15

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„ Gujerat (Broach)	12	20	25	13
„ Karachi	25	24	35	20
VI. Canara Ports. (Mangalore, Mandla, Honawar & Karwar, etc.)				
To Bombay	8	10	16	8
„ Konkan Ports (Ratnagiri)	5	6	10	5
„ Gujerat (Broach)	10	14	22	12
„ Kathiawar	12	20	24	14
„ Karachi	20	22	32	18
„ Cochin	6	8	6	10
VII. Thana-Kalyan.				
To Bombay	2	1	1	2
„ Konkan Ports (Ratnagiri)	6	3	3	8
VIII. India. (West Coast)				
Bombay to Busrah	40	25	30	35
Marmagoa to Busrah	42	28	30	35
Jamnagar (Bedi) to Busrah	32	24	26	32
Karachi-Busrah	28	20	24	28

As already mentioned above, the timings are only approximate, and they may just be taken as an approximate basis for calculation. These timings refer only to normal conditions of weather. Much more time may be taken by ships during disturbed weather conditions.

We may explain here a few more points in connection with the winds blowing on the west coast of India which then determine the time taken by ships during the two main periods.

Thus, during September, October and November, the force of the southwest monsoon is still on, and therefore ships going southward and westward will be delayed in their voyage. From December onwards, the easterly winds blow and the ships going eastwards or north-east-

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ward will be delayed. From January onwards the North-east trade winds are in full force and ships going north are considerably delayed. This situation continues up to the middle of May. From thence on the southwest monsoon disturbs the coast, and ships going south are delayed to a certain extent up to the end of November. But during this period (April-November), it should be remembered that specially during September, October, and November, the force of the winds is more westerly than southerly, and therefore ships going south will not be so much delayed as those going westward. The ships going southward will be benefitted by the westerly winds (on the starboard or windward side of ships) which will therefore more than compensate and also counteract to a certain extent the force of winds from the south.

Thus the two main periods (1) April to November, and (2) November to April are marked by two sub-periods as follow :—

I. April to November period is divided into
  (i) April to August—When the southerly winds are more powerful.
  (ii) September, October and November, when the westerly winds are more powerful.

II. November to April :
  (i) November to January, when easterly winds are more powerful.
  (ii) January to middle of May when northerly winds are more powerful.

Ships plying in direction opposite to these winds will therefore be naturally delayed. We have taken these factors into consideration, and the timings shown above under the two main periods are the averages of the two sub-periods under each of the main periods. However, the timings need not be taken as axiomatically correct. As mentioned above, they may be taken only as indications or guidance for a rough calculation, although in many cases, the timings are more or less correct based on actual experience.

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CHAPTER IX.

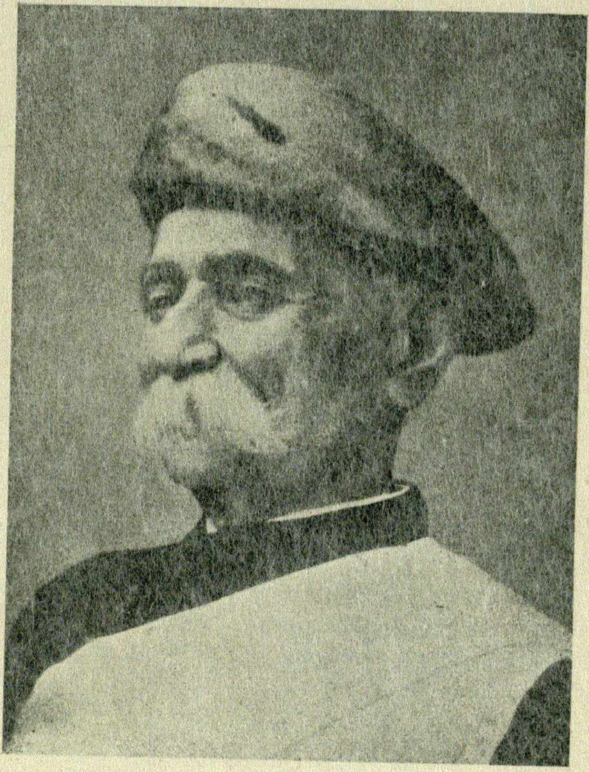
THE SEA-CUM-RAIL TRAFFIC.

The expression "Sea-cum-Rail" clearly indicates the mode of traffic that passes over sea route and railroad jointly. The word "cum" means "plus" or "with" and therefore the traffic that passes over sea and terminates at any railroad station is appropriately summed up and denominated as "Sea-cum-Rail" traffic.

But in a way a large portion of overseas and coastal traffic passes over sea and rail, because all the cargo imported is not consumed at ports nor all the cargo exported originates at the port towns. Most of the cargo imported at any port goes ultimately to the interior places, usually over the rail wherever there are railways. Similarly, a good portion of the cargo exported from any port usually comes to the port over the rail in these days.

But the "Sea-cum-Rail" traffic has achieved a special meaning. The cargo imported at the ports and some time later going into the interior over the rail cannot be considered as the cargo of the "sea-cum-rail" traffic. In this case the cargo is imported by merchants at such ports with a view to sell locally or to meet the demands of the interior merchants whenever the latter would ask for the cargo. But the cargo of the "sea-cum-rail" or of "rail-cum-sea" traffic is the cargo directly ordered by an interior merchant or despatched by an interior mechant at or near a railway station away from the port. Such interior merchant at or near a railway station can thus despatch his cargo from a railway station to the nearest port to be carried thence onwards by sea. In this case, he would be exporting cargo by the "rail-cum-sea" mode of traffic, just as he would be importing by the "sea-cum-rail" mode of traffic.

The expressions, "sea-cum-rail" and "rail-cum-sea" would therefore apply to that traffic or to that cargo which is carried jointly and directly by a single "through" operation over the sea and rail to or from any interior



Courtesy: "Scindia House" Opening Number

The late Sir Lallubhai Samaldas, one of the Founders of the Scindia Steam Nav. Co. Ltd., to whom the Author is indebted for his entry in the industrial and commercial field of India.

railway station on a "through" Bill of Lading or a "through" Railway Receipt without storing the whole or a part of it at the intermediate or ultimate port of landing or at the intermediate railway station. It is that cargo that is directly transhipped or booked to be transhipped to rail or to a vessel, directly from a vessel or from rail after landing same at the port of transhipment. Even if it has to be stored for some time to await the arrival of the on-carrying ship or of the allotment of waggons, the cargo is "in transit" only and it is a "through" cargo and not meant for local consumption at the port. Any cargo therefore that involves the combined operations of rail and ship at one stretch and is still considered to be "in transit" even though stored at the port of transhipment for a time and is booked on a "through" Bill of Lading or a "through" Railway Receipt is a cargo of the "sea-cum-rail" or "rail-cum-sea" traffic.

In this process, the transporting agencies—that is the railway and the shipping company—undertake by a joint arrangement to transport the cargo from a point of despatch to destination without the necessity of collaboration of the consignor or the consignee at the intermediate port or ports and railway station or stations in the process of transportation. The overall rate of freight charged includes railway freight for the rail journey and the ocean freight for the portion of the journey by sea along with incidental charges on transhipment from rail to vessel or from vessel to rail. The services required at the port of shipment or at the intermediate port of landing are rendered jointly by the railway and shipping company, and the consignor is absolved from the irksome formalities at an unknown rail-port, and also from the necessity of depending upon unknown Loading and Clearing Agents or from maintaining an office or agency at such ports.

The advantages of such "through" traffic are obvious. Some of the coastal tracts of almost all countries are not connected by rail and in some parts the railway line does not run parallel to the coast ,line. In most countries

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therefore this system is developed to a degree of perfection. In the passenger traffic it has become a matter of routine. A through ticket is booked by a passenger in Bombay for London involving steamer journey from Bombay to Marseilles or Genoa, railway journey from Marseilles or Genoa to Calais, steamer journey from Calais to Dover and rail journey from Dover to London. In our country, we have a through passenger traffic from any place in India to Colombo over the rail and the ship. One can go directly to Colombo by a steamship or by a sailing vessel, but alternatively, by a rail-cum-sea route. In this route, a passenger from Bombay can take a train from Bombay to Dhanushyakodi via Madras; detrain at Dhanushyakodi almost the southernmost point of India and embark there on the steamer ferry, land at Talaimanar the northernmost point in Ceylon, again take a train at Talaimanar and proceed to Colombo. Similar service is maintained by the East Bengal Railway from Calcutta to East Bengal. A passenger can buy a ticket at Calcutta for Chittagong and proceed up to Goalundo where he has to embark on a river boat which takes him up to Chandpur. At Chandpur he again takes the train which takes him to Chittagong. All this is done on a single ticket. This is the "through" traffic for a passenger.

Similarly, cargo is carried over the rail-cum-sea or sea-cum-rail route. In this system the prospective exporter applies to a Shipping Company or Shipping Agent for space for his cargo. If such space is available, he is issued a Shipping Order and his cargo is received on board the ship. In the case of such "through" cargo, the Shipping Company or the Shipping Agent takes delivery of the cargo near the wharf relieving the exporter of passing the cargo through the Customs and Port and then arranges for lighters to take the cargo to the ship if loading midstream. And thus the Agent or the Company sees to it that the exporter is put to the least possible trouble. Similarly, the railway company attends to all the formalities once the cargo is delivered at the railway station by the con-

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signor. Similar care is taken by them in delivering cargo to the consignees. Some railways even go so far as to maintain connected bus services from the railhead to the interior towns for transporting the goods to such places. And thus, the joint carriers render useful service to the trade.

But the cargo traffic of the sea-cum-rail route, due to its bulk and the necessity of careful handling, requires a lot of specialised training and consideration. It imposes a responsibility on the carriers, both moral and legal, for the safe carriage of the goods according to the custom of the trade, according to the regulations imposed by the Carriage of Goods by Sea Act and the Railway Acts and according to the Customs and Port formalities. Where the most care has to be exercised by the carriers is at the port of transhipment, particularly when such port is a foreign port. Careful handling at the port is essential in the interest of the consignors and consignees. The carriers have to see to it that the cargo landed at the port where neither the consignor nor the consignee has a chance to check its condition or to find out any defects in the cargo, is in a fit condition for its onward journey. It is therefore the duty of the shipping company and the railway company to see that the cargo is in a proper condition for further journey. Wherever possible, any defects in packing or in the condition of cargo have to be rectified before further despatch of the cargo. It is not morally right for the carriers to ignore this part of their responsibility and just to pass the cargo on to its onward journey in the defective condition in which it was landed. They have to see that the packing is in sound condition before despatch. They have to act as if the owner of the cargo himself would act under the circumstances. In fact, they become the agents of the owners of the cargo, and as such they have to undertake all the responsibilities of their position, and discharge their duties towards the owners of the cargo as between agents and principals. This is a legal obligation. This part of the function of any "through" carriers of cargo is of

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utmost importance to the trade—this service at the port of transhipment. And any carrying agency that will render this service to the trade deserves well of the public. For this service, even the consignors and the consignees need not grudge a little more extra payment. This small extra payment would save them much more by the loss which they might be put to.

Some companies that undertake to cater to this sea-cum-rail traffic go even beyond merely transporting the cargo over the sea and rail after receiving on shore or at a railway station. They even take charge of the cargo from merchants' godowns and deliver same at the godowns of the consignees. These charges of forwarding to the shore at the port of shipment or for forwarding to the station of despatch from a merchant's godown and the delivery charges from shore to godowns at destination, are not, however, included in the "through" rate owing to the diversity in distances from the shore or from the railway stations to merchants' godowns. No uniform rates can be fixed for such distances so as to be included in the through composite rate. A separate schedule is sometimes given by railway or steamer companies for these charges at various stations or ports based on the local conditions. But at no time these charges enter into the rate-making process for the "through" cargo.

The carriers, in certain cases, can undertake to render this service to absolve the consignor and the consignee from the tiresome process of finding lorries or carts for hauling the cargo to shore or railway station, and again finding out coolies and lorries or carts at destination for moving the cargo to godown. All these operations are performed by the carriers at an additional cost to which a consignor or a consignee would be put to just the same. His (consignor's or consignee's) work being more periodical than daily, he may perhaps have to pay more than what he would have to pay to the carriers who may have standing business in this line. At least the volume of business thus carried by the carriers would be greater than that carried on by an individual merchant, and therefore the carriers are likely to have better and perhaps cheaper means of transport at their disposal for this purpose. And even if the consignor or the consignee has to pay a little extra for this kind of service, it is worth his while to entrust the work to the carriers, because he is saved a lot of extra work, expense and time that he may have to devote to that kind of work. No doubt most of the merchants have got their own clearing and forwarding agents. But even there, he has to deal with two parties—one the clearing and forwarding agents, and the other, the "through" carriers. By entrusting the entire work of transportation to the latter, the consignor or the consignee saves himself the worry of dealing with two parties.

Advantages of entrusting cargo to "through" carriers right from the godown to the godown are therefore obvious.

Often such cargo has to be carried twice over rail with one intermediate transport by sea or twice by sea with one intermediate rail journey. For instance, cotton bales from Lyallpur in the Punjab to Ahmedabad, are carried in this manner. They are first brought from Lyallpur and other railway stations on the North Western Railway to Karachi, transhipped at Karachi to sailing ships which take them to Bedi or Navlakhi, whence the bales are again railed to Ahmedabad. The carriers, in this case have to perform this double transhipment at the intermediate ports, and the "through" rate covers these charges. Similarly cargo may be carried twice over sea route and once or twice over rail as we shall see later.

It is because of such varied services rendered by carriers to the trade that the sea-cum-rail transport is assuming great importance in these days. Due, specially, to the shortage of waggons for public and even for Government cargo, this kind of traffic has now been assuming a large proportion. In peace times also this type of traffic was in existence to a certain extent on the west coast between Bombay and Kathiawar, and between Bombay and Madras Presidency by sea-cum-rail service

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maintained jointly by steamship companies and railways. But now owing to the shortage of steamships, alternative means of sea transport had to be found, and sailing vessels are now used for the purpose in the place of steamers.

Thus, the gap created by the scarcity of steam tonnage is now being filled by the sailing vessel for every purpose. These vessels therefore have now been playing the most vital role in this type of traffic as well. Owing to congestion of traffic on various railway lines and shortage of steamships, the trade is diverted to sea, specially on the west coast, to be carried mostly by sailing vessels for as long a distance as it may possibly be carried up to the port nearest to any interior town. Thereafter the railway waggons are utilized for the most minimum distance after transhipment at the port nearest to the ultimate railway destination. The traffic on Broad-gauge Lines especially is thus diverted in such a way that for the most part the cargo can be carried by sailing vessels, and thereafter at the port of landing the same can be further carried by Meter Gauge or Narrow Gauge railway lines. This diversion to sailing ships is functioning at present very satisfactorily and several shipping companies and shipping agents have come forward to carry this traffic jointly with various railways. The Railway Companies had to give monopolies of this traffic up to the railhead situated within their respective spheres, without which no uniformity of traffic and traffic rates and regulations could be achieved. The Shipping Companies and Shipping Agents have mostly confined themselves to one particular Railway on one route, excepting the Bombay Steam Navigation Company who have made arrangements for this type of transport with five or six railways as would be seen from the following statement :—

ROUTE.	RAILWAY.	SHIPPING AGENTS.
1. Bombay–Bedi	Jamnagar & Dwarka Railway.	Indian Shipping Industry Ltd. (Managing Agents : Amritlal Ojha & Sons, Ltd.)
2. Bombay–Navlakhi	Morvi State Rly.	J. T. Kotak & Co.

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3. Bombay-Kavi	Gaekwar's Baroda State Railway	Western India Shipping & Controlling Company. (Prop : Vishram Khimji.)
4. Bombay-Porbunder	Porbunder State Rly.	Bombay Steam Navigation Company, Ltd.
5. Bombay-Verawal	Junagad State Railway	do
6. Bombay-Bhavnagar	Bhavnagar State Rly.	do
7. Bombay-Cochin :	South Indian Railway	do
8. Punjab-Karachi to Bombay or Malabar	North Western Rly.	do
9. Bombay-Marmagoa :	Madras & Southern Mahratta Railway; Mysore State Railway; Western India Portuguese Railway	(1) do (2) IndianShipping Industry Ltd. (3) Vishram Khimji. (4) Madhavji Vishram & Co. (5) Kathiawar Shipbuilding & Trading Corporation Ltd. (6) J. T. Kotak & Co.
10. Karachi-Bedi :	Jamnagar & Dwarka Railway	Madhavji Vishram & Co.
11. Karachi-Navlakhi	Morvi State Railway	J. T. Kotak & Co.

This traffic is now maintained by sailing vessels, the Bombay Steam Navigation Company alone supplementing it occasionally on some routes, as on the Bombay-Marmagoa route and sometimes on Karachi-Trivandrum route by steamers over some distance. At present the Company sometimes employs steamers for foodgrains and cotton from Karachi to Bombay, and then tranships the same to sailing vessels in Bombay for onward carriage to Cochin from where the grain is further carried by rail to the interior or by small steamers and sailing vessels to Alleppey, Quilon, Trivandrum and other parts in the south.

The cargo carried on all these sea-cum-rail and rail-cum-sea routes is just the same as will be mentioned hereafter in Chapter X. Almost everything is carried by

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sailnig vessels on these routes, exceptions being heavy lifts such as big engines and similar other items. But after proper arrangements, even such heavy lifts can also be carried by sailing vessels.

We have so far received no complaints of any serious damage to cargo in the course of such traffic. Safe deliveries are reported from the ports of destination and even ultimate railway stations, and all indications point to a smooth working on all the "through" routes. So far there is nothing to indicate that the safe carriage of cargo by sailing vessels is in any way seriously jeopardised, barring by of course, the usual risks of sea transport to which any vessel is liable. It can, therefore, be reasonably concluded that given further encouragement both by the Government of India and the Indian States, as well as by the general public, this traffic can be developed even up to a stage of perfection as desired by everyone concerned. Delay in transport by sailing ships is, however, an important drawback. Such delays must be put up with as inevitable. The sailing vessel has to depend on Mother Nature for its power of propelling and until they have the complement of auxiliary engines, this defect cannot be avoided. But these delays are nevertheless much shorter than those caused in waiting for bookings on the heavily congested railways; and where there is no alternative route possible or where such railway traffic is banned or restricted, the question of delay does not arise at all.

The only other drawback seems to be the possibility of damage in double or sometimes treble transportation which may be necessary when the cargo is in transit over rail and sea. In such passage, cargo will be handled several times, and in consequence it is likely to sustain damage, leakage and|or breakage. The consignees therefore will not resort to this route if an alternative all-rail or all-sea route is possible and they will get their cargo by such latter routes even at some extra payment. It is only when the railway freight is much higher than the sea-cum-rail freight, or when railway lines are congest-

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ed as at present, or when traffic on certain lines is banned for certain kinds of cargo that the consignees will decide to get their cargo by sea-cum-rail route. Otherwise they would invariably prefer to get their cargo by the other routes even at a somewhat higher rate of freight. But if the railway company and shipping company or shipping agent devote particular attention to prevent damage, leakage and|or breakage and take proper care in remedying defects in packing at each stage of handling, and the consignors spend a little more for strong packing, this difficulty will be removed. It will all depend on the confidence that the carrying agents will create amongst the consignors about the efficiency of their service. And yet some damage, leakage or breakage cannot be avoided during the course of transportation over so many stages. This handicap may be reduced to a minimum but cannot altogether be removed from the sea-cum-rail or rail-cum-sea traffic.

Division of Functions.

The functions performed by railway companies and the allied shipping companies or the shipping agents in this traffic are more or less defined by the nature of transport in their respective sphere. In the case of cargo orginating at any port, the shipping company undertakes to provide a vessels at a rate which will be within a reasonable limit of the through rate, to load the vessel with the through cargo and to provide the vessel with all facilities to reach its destination port. At the destination port, the Shipping Agent, or the railway company on his behalf, arranges to discharge the through cargo which is then loaded into waggons provided by the railway concerned. Before loading into waggons, defects, if any, in the packing of the cargo are remedied by the shipping agent or the railway company on his behalf. Ultimately the cargo is delivered to the consignees at the destination station by the railway.

When the cargo is shipped at the port of origin the shipper is given a "through" Bill of Lading or a Bill of

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Lading (B|L) and a Railway Receipt, or a "through" Railway Receipt only. If both a B|L and a Railway Receipt are issued, then the shipper surrenders the B|L in favour of the shipping company or railway company in order that the company should be able to take delivery of the cargo at the port of transhipment, the shipper holding the Railway Receipt (R|R) which he can send to the consignee to enable him to take delivery of the goods from the railway company at the ultimate railway station and remit his dues. If a "through" Bill of Lading is issued, then the original is given to the shipper, and the copy is sent to the railway company at the port of transhipment to enable the railway to take delivery of the cargo and to tranship it to railway waggons. The railway receipt issued at such intermediate port of discharge is then sent to the railway company's office at destination station to enable the railway staff to check up same with the original Bill of Lading given to the shipper which the consignee might produce to demand delivery of the goods.

If on the other hand, a through railway receipt is issued by the shipping company or the shipping agent at the port of origin, instead of a "through" B|L as is done in some cases, then such R|R is made out in quadruplicate, each copy of which is named differently as "Receipt", "Through", "Invoice" or "Record" and "Junction". The "Receipt" copy is then given to the shipper, the "Through" copy is sent to the destination railway station, and the "Junction" copy is sent to the office of agents of the shipping company or of the railway company at the junction port which is the port of transhipment; and the "Record" copy is retained by the shipping company. The reverse process will be adopted when the cargo originates at a railway station.

When the process is reversed and the cargo originates at a railway station of the allied railway company and ends at a port, the R|R to be issued may be a "through" R|R in quadruplicate as just described or a R|R issued by the railway company, and a Bill of Lading issued by the ship-

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ping agent at the port of transhipment. The B|L is then sent to the consignor who sends it to his consignee for taking delivery from the shipping agent at destination. The functions of the respective party in this process are performed in the same manner as explained above but in the reverse order. The railway company finds waggons for the cargo, carries it to the rail-port and arranges to tranship it to a sailing vessel provided by the shipping company or agent at the port of transhipment. The shipping company carries the cargo by vessels to destination where it is delivered to the consignees.

The third variation may be in the case where the cargo originating at a railway station, is landed at a port with a railhead, shipped thence to another port, and is further carried again on rail to its ultimate railway station. In this case, the railway company does its part as explained above up to the port of transhipment from whence on, the shipping company begins to function, takes the cargo to the port of transhipment and loads it into railway waggons at the latter port. This on-carrying railway company may not be the same on whose station the cargo originated. Herein therefore two railway companies would be involved, and the shipping company and the original railway company on whose line the cargo originated must have a joint arrangement with this second railway company if the cargo has to be transported on a "through-booking" system with a "through" rate for the cargo over the entire journey. This would entail a tripartite agreement. So far as the railway rates are concerned, all railways, especially connected railways have their mutual agreements. But so far as the rate for the through-booked cargo involving a shipping company is concerned, special agreements must be entered into amongst the three parties.

An example of this mode of transport is with regard to cargo, say, from Chalisgaon or Jalgaon on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to a destination on the North Western Railway in the Punjab. Supposing this cargo is to be carried by rail-cum-sea-cum-rail route, it will be brought down to Bombay by rail, transhipped there to a sailing vessel to be carried to Karachi, discharged at Karachi from the vessel and then again railed there for the ultimate railway station. The cargo originating at Jalgaon may also be carried alternatively to the nearest port which is Surat from where it can be carried to Karachi by sailing vessels and further dealt with as above.

Another case may be cited in which the cargo may be carried twice by sailing vessels and once over the rail. Cargo originating at Bombay may be carried to Calicut by sailing ships, where it may be transhipped to the South Indian Railway which may carry it up to Madras on the east coast, and thence to Cocanada or Calcutta or other destination by sailing vessels if desired. Alternatively, it may be carried to Mangalore or Marmagoa by sailing vessels from Bombay, thence to Cocanada by M. & S. M. Railway, and from Cocanada to Calcutta again by sailing vessels.

In this way, several permutations and combinations of traffic may be arranged, provided alternative railway booking for the entire journey is not available and the "through" rate does not become prohibitive.

From the foregoing delineation, it will be clear that if all the railway companies and shipping companies combine together for the purpose of sea-cum-rail traffic, they will be rendering a great public service to the trade especially in these days. The exporters and importers will be able to dispense with the necessity of maintaining offices or agencies at the points of transhipment and a lot of their energy, money and time will be saved to them which they can devote to the expansion of their trade. The railway and the shipping companies will have additional means of earning in a small way. And by their supplying a specialised staff at points of despatch or delivery, they will definitely serve the consignor and the consignee more efficiently and more economically than the consignor and the consignee themselves would do. The mutual competition as between railway and steamship companies will

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subside. But the spirit of "Live and Let Live" must pervade.

The advantages of this system therefore become obvious to all concerned, particularly when the policy of the Government is to conserve railway waggons and steamer tonnage for war purposes. Cost to the public is likely to be less in some cases.

It is, however, assumed that the Shipping Company or the Shipping Agent becomes the monopolist of the Railway Company for the traffic on a particular route. The shipping company or the shipping agent thus operates in a particular zone for the "through" cargo, and it is possible that other public cargo in the zone meant for local consumption at the transhipment port may also follow the same trend of rates of ocean freight as levied by the companies for "through-booked" cargo.

In the foregoing summary of the sea-cum-rail traffic, we have assumed that sailing ships are employed for sea transport. The function would obviously be performed by steamers whenever possible. But as this book has its subject the sailing vessel traffic, we have taken such vessels for explaining all the processes and functions of the shipping company. However, practically the same functions will be, and as a matter-of-fact are, performed by steamship companies in connection with this traffic.

Another factor in this traffic may here be mentioned, and that is the employment of a shipping agent by the railway company on commission basis.

So far we have dealt with the traffic as carried by a Shipping Company and a Railway Company as independent parties who have combined together for a common purpose, and divide their expenses and earnings according to the function performed by each one of them. But when a railway company appoints a shipping agent for performing the shipping part of the process on commission, all the expenses are borne by the railway company and all the earnings are taken by it, the shipping agent getting a certain percentage of commission on freight earned or so much per ton of cargo carried by sailing vessels.

Each of the above two systems has its own advantages and disadvantages which are quite obvious. In the case of joint work by the two companies, that is, by the shipping company or the shipping agent and by the railway company working independent of each other, the responsibility is divided between them, and each tries in his respective sphere to do its utmost for a joint effort. The shipping company retains its own freight and the railway company does it likewise. The charges of transhipment are in some cases divided according to the work performed by each. And although the "through" rate is fixed so far as the consignor and the consignee are concerned, the division of earnings between the railway company and the shipping company or agent, is fixed on a stated basis amongst them. In other respects they maintain their own independence in their respective spheres.

But in the case of the shipping agent on commission basis, the railway company becomes the principal and the shipping functionary as agent of the railway only. The latter has to carry on the work according to the direction given to him by the railway company within the scope of the powers given to him. Obviously this system has its limitations; and while it places little responsibility on the agent beyond carrying out instructions of the principal and trying to secure as much cargo as possible, main burden of responsibility is shouldered by the railway company alone. In fact some railways in foreign countries actually maintain shipping companies of their own for this purpose, like, for instance, the Canadian Pacific Railway which owns the Canadian Pacific Steamship Company having large steamers of its own. But in a way this system of shipping agency on commission basis has its own advantages despite its limitations, because thereby one uniform system can be followed all throughout the passage of the cargo from one end to another, and the possible friction between the railway company and the shipping company can be avoided. From this point of view the advantages

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of employing a shipping agent on commission basis will be obvious. But the system will place heavier responsibility on the railway company. Each railway company, however, will be able to determine its own arrangements according to the facilities at its disposal in this respect.

We have thus explained the division of functions between the two sets of independent carriers, the steamship company and the railway company, and dealt with the advantages of the system of employment of shipping agent on commission basis. Both these systems often work satisfactorily, and with greater encouragement there is nothing to prevent the possibility of better service to the public under any of the two systems. If this object of better service to the public is to be achieved, serious efforts must be made to encourage this side of the transport as much as possible.

One aspect of this traffic may be referred to cursorily, and that is, when the "through" cargo has to be carried beyond the allied railway over another connected "foreign" railway, that is to say, the railway not primarily involved in the sea-cum-rail traffic by joint agreement. Previously we have referred to another railway system which carries the cargo beyond a certain port after it is landed from a vessel. But herein we are referring to a railway which is directly connected with and is a continuation of the allied railway. In this case, the allied railway may have its own agreements with such "foreign" railway, and the "through" cargo would be carried in the same manner as the allied railway would do, with this difference that there would be no concession in rates or other facilities on such "foreign" railway. ("Foreign" railway does not mean railway in a foreign country. It is a technical term applied by any one railway system in a country to another railway organisation in the same country. The word "foreign" therefore, merely means "another" railway in the same country). After the cargo is passed from the allied railway to such a connected foreign railway the cargo will be subject to the same

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rules as other cargo and will be delivered by the foreign railway or railways in the same manner as other cargo.

But in the case where a consignor on such a foreign railway wishes to take advantage of the rail-cum-sea transportion, such consignor will not get the same facilities as given to him by the allied railway. He can however take advantage of the mode of transportation by consigning the goods to the station master at the transhipment port of the allied railway from where the goods will be shipped by a sailing vessel. He can send the R|R to the Station Master at such transhipment port, who will then undertake to ensure the further passage of the goods. Concessions, if any, in that case would be obtained only on the allied railway and on the on-carrying vessels. But primarily he will have to book his goods from the "foreign" railway at full rates, and then claim concessions if any from the allied railway and the shipping company on the distance over which his cargo is carried by these two joint carriers.

The Composition of Rates

After having explained the situation from different angles, we may briefly mention the elements which enter into rate-making. These are as commencing from the port of shipment:—

> (1) Shipping Charges (including such charges as for coolies, wharfage, lighters from shore to a ship if loading midstream) (2) Port and Customs Charges. (3) Sea Freight. (4) Unloading charges at the port of transhipment including lighterage if any. (5) Labour Charges for loading into waggons. (6) Railway Freight from the port of transhipment to ultimate railway station and incidental expenses at the latter station. (7) Remuneration for the services of the railway company and shipping company. (8) Advertising.

All other incidental charges are included in the above elements. The only variation will be the commission of a Shipping Agent instead of the remuneration of the shipping company, where the railway may have appointed a

Courtesy: Seth Abdul Rehman

Emir Sir Mohmud Yusuf, Kt. who maintains a Training School at Novha for Sailing Vessel Seamen.

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shipping agent of its own instead of the railway and shipping company working independently of each other. Insurance is separately quoted both for sea and rail transport owing to variable rates of premium on cargo shipped per sailing vessels. When the cargo originates at a railway station, the process is reversed and the rate-making commences from that station up to the port of landing.

One point, however, may be noted in this connection. That is, that the ship freight may not always be the same both ways. As we shall see further, the rates even in the same route for the same cargo are not always the same in both the directions. Similarly, they may not be the same even in the same direction but during different parts of the season. These depend on the volume of cargo passing in each direction and the part of the season. It will not therefore be proper to assume that the composite rate will be the same for cargo in both the directions for the entire season.

Payment Of Freight.

The payment of freight is a knotty problem. Who is to collect the freight and where? This is a brain-teasing question. It becomes more complex when the goods are despatched from a "foreign" railway.

Thus the questions that arise are :—

(1) Whether the entire freight or the railway freight only should be collected at the railway station where goods are originally consigned.

(2) Whether the entire freight should be collected at destination.

(3) Whether the entire freight should be collected at the intermediate port of transhipment.

(4) Whether the railway freight should be paid by the Shipping Agent to the railway company at the port of transhipment and collect the entire freight at destination.

(5) Whether the ship's freight should be collected at the port of shipment, and the balance of charges

including railway foreight should be collected at destination.

(6) Whether the entire freight should be collected at the original port of shipment.

All these problems are solved when freight is payable at destination and the Bill of Lading or the Railway Receipt is made "To Pay". Especially when the goods are despatched from a "foreign" railway station, the R|R will have to be made "To Pay". Freight in that case is collected at the port of destination before delivery of the goods, or at the ultimate railway station where goods are to be finally delivered. Thereafter the respective shares are adjusted between the railway and the shipping company. The only difficulty that may arise sometimes is about the payment of freight to the "foreign" railway. This must be paid after the goods have completed their rail journey and this can be arranged between the allied railway and such "foreign" railway. Similarly if the goods originate at any port of shipment, the ship's freight may be collected at that port. The idea underlying collection of freight is that the consignor and consignee are not put to any irksome formalities in the matter of payment of freight. It may be paid at the port of shipment or at destination, but never at the intermediate port of transhipment. It may also be paid at the despatching station of the allied railway. But when the goods are despatched from any "foreign" railway the only point where the freight can be collected is the port of destination or ultimate railway station. The consignor, however, may be asked, whenever possible, to pay the railway freight at such "foreign" railway station up to the station on the allied railhead where the goods are to be transhipped, and the on-carrying ships freight will then remain to be collected at destination. Within the scope of these different modes of payment, the railway and the shipping companies may settle the method of payment by mutual agreement.

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We have dealt with this mode of traffic rather at length, because it is assuming large proportions at present. On the west coast, approximately about 15,000 tons of cargo is carried every month from various coastal ports in all directions by sailing vessels under this mode of transport jointly with the various railways connected with the west coast. And with proper stimulus, the traffic is likely to assume even greater importance. It may also be an useful adjunct to the coastal traffic even in peace times if protected by the Government by extending certain facilities. What is required is the cooperation between Railway and Shipping Companies. The Railways are either state-owned or controlled by the state through the Railway Board. And if the Government also appoints recognized guaranteed shipping agents for the various routes and lays down general rules and procedure for recovery and allocation of freight and for issuing of "through" B|L or R|R, transportation of goods will be greatly facilitated. As the various shipping agents will then be under the control of the Government through the Railway Board, they will naturally cooperate with one another with the result that the passage of goods from one zone or route to another will be facilitated. Payments and recoveries can be made by book adjustments as is done by two or more railways.

CHAPTER X.

THE CARGO.

The cargo carried by sailing ships in these days is legion.

We have said in the introductory portion that they are carrying at present almost from pin to anchor, but there are bound to be some limitations to it. For instance, owing to absence of steam winches and derricks, they cannot pick up and land such heavy lifts as big locomotives, lorries or trolleys, or large engines for workshops. They are not entrusted also with the carriage of valuables, nor even

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specie and bullion for want of adequate insurance facilities. These ships are merely provided with pulleys through which they pass the heavy coir ropes, and then the cargo is hoisted up to or hoisted out of the ships by the crew pulling the ropes by hand. The wooden construction of the ships is not often capable of sustaining the weight of individually heavy packages, and the crew are unwilling to handle these in the ship. The tindels and the owners are reluctant to accept them as they occupy larger space than ordinary cargo and the owners do not get proportionately higher freight. Besides, the delays in loading and unloading are comparatively longer.

But for a few of these limitations, the sailing vessel to-day is of inestimable importance to sea transport. On the positive side, their suitability for certain kinds of cargo, such as sand, bricks, tiles, timber and such other materials cannot be over-emphasised. These are perhaps easier to handle in the sailing ships than in a steamer. And besides these specialised articles, they are already carrying general cargo as well with safety.

Although the cargo carried at present by sailing vessels in various directions is of varied nature, only particular types of cargo are available in particular regions due to local conditions. The type of cargo depends mainly on the production of the area nearest to any particular port. This can conveniently be allocated to the different routes mentioned in chapter VIII hereof. On each of these routes, there is mainly a particular nature of cargo to be carried, other general cargo being comparatively insignificant. We may therefore mention hereunder the different types of cargo and the routes over which it is carried:—

Route :	**Outward Cargo**	**Inward Cargo.**
1. Karachi-Bombay	Cotton, wheat, cereals and other foodgrains.	General cargo, oil and oil products, kerosene, piecegoods. Generally very little cargo is carried on this route and ships usually sail in

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		ballast from Bombay to Karachi.
2. Karachi-Kathiawar:	Cotton, cotton seeds cereals, foodgrains like wheat, pulses etc. and dates, dry fruits being produce of Arabia.	Cotton piecegoods groundnut, cereals, and general cargo. There is not much cargo from Kathiawar to Karachi.
3. Karachi-Gujerat :	Cotton, foodgrains, etc.	Piecegoods, timber etc.
4. Karachi-Malabar.	Foodstuffs, cotton, etc.	Timber, coir, coir-matting, cocoanuts and cocoanut oil, spices etc.
II. Bombay-Karachi :	See "Inward Cargo" and "Outward Cargo" as mentioned above under Karachi-Bombay Route.	
2. Bombay-Kathiawar :	Piecegoods, hardware, leather goods, oil and oil products, medicines, cement, general cargo, and coal.	Ghee, groundnut, cereals, oil-cake etc.
3. Bombay-Gujerat :	-do-	Piecegoods, timber etc.
4. Bombay-Malabar :	-do- and salt.	Timber, coir and copra, cocoanut, coir matting, coir-rope, spices, tiles from Mangalore etc.
5. Bombay-Tuticorin :	General Cargo.	Cotton yarn, cocoanut oil etc.
6. Bombay-Colombo :	-do- Cement, etc.	Coir, coir-matting, copra, cocoanut oil, tea, mats, coffee, etc.
7. Bombay-Busrah :	Cotton piecegoods, groundnut oil, groundnut cake and tea and general cargo.	Dates, dry fruits, dry fish, mats, coffee etc.
III. Kathiawar-Gujerat :	Groundnut, oil-cake, oil-products, oil, cement, etc.	Piecegoods, yarn, timber, cotton seed etc.

2. Kathiawar-Busrah :	Piecegoods, oil and oil products etc.	Dates, dry fruits, coffee, dry fish, etc.
3. Kathiawar-Malabar :	Groundnut oil, oil-cake, bonemeal, groundnut, salt, cement, etc.	Tiles from Mangalore, coir and coir-matting, copra, cocoanuts, cocoanut oil, spices (often transhipped to other ships in Bombay) timber, etc.
IV. Malabar and S. Kanara Ports. (Mangalore, Calicut, Cochin) :		
1. To Alleppey, Quilon, and Tuticorin :	Coir, coir-matting, timber, spices, cocoanuts, foodstuffs and tiles from Mangalore.	Very little excepting piecegoods, yarn, firewood, sand, etc.
2. Colombo :	Timber, tiles, cement, bricks.	Practically nil, excepting groundnut oil, cocoanut, coir matting, etc.
3. Konkan Ports :	Cocoanuts, copra, coir, coir-mattings, timber, tiles, etc.	Foodstuffs, salt, etc.
V. North Kanara Ports : (Honavar, Karwar, Bhatkal) :	Cotton, timber, spices, etc.	General cargo as mentioned under Bombay Malabar route.
VI. Thana-Kalyan :		
1. To Bombay :	Bricks, tiles, foodstuffs, timber, charcoal, wood, fuel, etc.	General Cargo as mentioned under Bombay-Kathiawar.
VII. Konkan Ports, (Ratnagiri, Dabhol, Deogad, Malwan, Vengurla) :		
1. To Bombay :	Mangoes, Mango products, industrial sand and clays, colour materials, etc.	-do-

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VIII. Marmagoa-Bombay :	Cotton, piecegoods, cereals, etc.	-do-
IX. Marmagoa-Busrah :	Charcoal, piece-goods, cereals, etc.	Dates, coffee, dry fish, etc.

It will be seen from the above that the cargo carried by sailing vessels on the various routes or zones is more or less of a specialised nature pertaining to the production of the particular region. The sailing vessel in these particular localities usually specialise in the trade of the ports. As mentioned before, some of them would rather go back in ballast from one port to another on the same route than carry cargo outside the route. For instance, the Malabar ships would ply only on the Malabar-Bombay or Malabar-Tuticorin zone or route and will not go north of Bombay to Kathiawar or Karachi. The Konkan ships will ply only on the Konkan-Bombay and Konkan-Kanara route and will not usually go beyond. Some other types of ships will specialise in Bombay-Karachi or Kathiawar trade only. It is only the Cutch-Kathiawar, Gujerat and Sind ships that go over to any other zone where inducement is offering. But generally all other types of sailing ships on the west coast ply only in particular zones, the creterion being a distance of not more than 400 to 500 miles from their home ports. They thus prefer a round voyage of about 800 to 900 miles or so and not longer. It is only the third type of ships (barring of course the Arabian ships many of whom are registered in Karachi) that can undertake such long voyages as between Kathiawar and Malabar-Tuticorin-Colombo, or between Karachi and Malabar-Colombo. The Cutch-Kathiawar ships also ply between the west coast of India and Muscat, Busrah, Khoramshahar and other ports on the Persian Gulf and Arabian coast as we have mentioned before.

This traffic on different routes and the specialisation by a substantially large number of ships for the traffic peculiar to those routes have created fairly well-marked zones or regions of traffic on the west coast of India, and it is easy to identify certain cargo to and from a particular

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zone or route. This gives also facility to study the movement of traffic on the west coast of India, when it is naturally divided into well-marked routes. It also affords facility for regulation of the traffic on those routes without in any way seriously infringing on the routine of the traffic or without inflicting any hardships on the shipowners or general public. With these divisions of traffic already existing regulation of traffic by sailing ships whenever necessary will in no way hamper the progress of the traffic.

One point may be stressed in this connection, and that is about care of cargo in transit.

Many ships have no decks and still less have holds and hatch-coverings. In such ships the cargo lies stowed in exposed conditions. This, therefore, exposes the cargo to water and sun, which might lead to damage. Some ships carry tarpaulins; but others carry only palm-leaves and sometimes mats to cover the cargo. In some cases, shippers provide tarpaulins or the shipowners do so at an extra cost to the shippers. All this depends on the custom of the trade. But as a general rule, it may be stated that only ordinary coverings, such as, those of palm-leaves, mats and even straw are usually provided by the shipowners; and if the shippers want their cargo covered by tarpaulins, they must pay extra for same to the shipowners or provide them themselves. The shipowners will not entertain any claims for damage etc., for want of coverings like those of tarpaulins. Every shipper has to be conscious of this when shipping his cargo by sailing ships, and be prepared to bear the damage himself if any is caused. It is not the custom of the trade in the sailing vessel traffic by which the shipowners are required to pay to shippers any claims for damage.

But improvement is necessary in this system; and since shipowners cannot provide all these facilities owing to the small amount of freight earned by them, the shippers should pay them extra for providing additional protection to their cargo. The shippers may further start the practice of preferring to ship their cargo by such ships as

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may have sufficient and effective coverings for protecting their cargo from weather and sea. This will automatically induce shipowners to equip their ships with tarpaulins or other strong coverings instead of mere palm-leaves.

The total volume of cargo carried by sailing vessels and other related matters will be discussed in Chapter XVI entitled "The Sailing Vessel vs. Steamship".

CHAPTER XI.

RATES:

Under the heading "Rates", we shall consider (1) the Charter Rates, that is, the rates at which ships are chartered by merchants and shipping agents and (2) the rates charged by shipping agents to shippers of cargo.

Thus, in the case of a merchant who charters a vessel for his own cargo, there is no difference between the charter rate and the rate at which his cargo is actually carried. There being no middleman, no addition is made to the freight paid to the shipowner. In his accounts he may charge an increased rate for the cargo shipped per such vessel as charged by shipping agent to shippers and recover the increased amount from the purchaser of his cargo. But for the purposes of the survey, we need not take into consideration this internal accounting. We can therefore be safe in stating that in the case of a cargo-owner who charters a ship for his cargo, the charter rate and the cargo rate are the same, because, such merchant usually makes his profit rather on the goods than on the freight excepting perhaps making a little money by way of brokerage on the charter hire

Let us therefore consider the two sets of rates and payments separately, that is, (1) the 'Charter Rate' and (2) the 'Cargo Rate'. The two kinds of payments involved herein, one relating to ship and the other relating to cargo, have attained two technical names. The total amount paid to the owner of a ship for chartering it from him is called

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"hire" or "charter hire", and "charter rate" means hire per ton or package or any other standard, either the registered ton as in the case of sailing vessels and deadweight ton as in the case of steamships. The total amount paid by the shippers of cargo to the owners or charterers like the shipping agent, is called "freight", and the rate per ton is called "freight rate" or "rate of freight". Thus, the word "hire" referes to the charter of the entire ship and the word "freight" refers to the quantity or quantities of cargo carried. When a part of the space of the entire ship is booked and loaded by a merchant, he becomes the "shipper"; but when the entire ship is "chartered" or taken on "agreement to load in full" the merchant who so takes the ship on agreement to load, becomes the "charterer".

1. Charter Rate:—Both the cargo rates and the charter rates of sailing ships vary according to the nature and size of the cargo, the length of the voyage, the route or zone over which the ship has to run, the inward or outward voyage, the demand for ships and their supply, possibility of competition with steamers on that route or with railway in the adjacent areas, and the part of the season during which a ship is chartered. All these factors, singly and often collectively, determine the rates. There are at present no fixed rates for any particular cargo to be carried on any particular route or during any particular season. But usually every shipper and every charterer of sailing ships is conversant with the approximate standard of rates; and unless there is an inflation for certain reasons, these approximate standards are always behind the mental calculations of the charterers at the time of the fixation of the charter rates. The shipowners as well as brokers know these standards as well. To fix a charter and charter rate do not therefore present a particularly difficult problem if ships are available for charter.

These charter rates are fixed on any one of the following bases (1) Total registered tonnage of the ship, (2) Per package carried, (3) Actual deadweight tonnage carried

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according to scale tons[*] on weight or measurement basis. Whatever basis is selected, usually happens that the rate quoted is such that the total freight earned is approximately the same. Where the rates quoted are on the quantity of cargo measurable in tons, that is, under item 3 above, the local standard for such calculation is the "Khandi" of this or that cargo. A "Khandi" is taken to be of 27 Bombay maunds wherein each "maund" is of 28 lbs. About three "Khandis" are taken to be equal to about one ton of 2240. The calculation is as below :—

28 lbs. = one Bombay Maund.
27 Bombay Maunds = One Khandi (756 lbs.).
3 Khandis = A little over One Ton (weight).

The total poundage of three khandis, thus comes to 2268 lbs. (one khandi being equal to 27 maunds x 28 lbs. = 756 lbs; 756 x 3 khandis = 2268 lbs). Thus 2268 lbs. are only a little higher than the poundage of 2240 to the ton. In the case of cotton, however, the ton is taken to be one of about 3½ khandis (i.e. about 2648 lbs.).

The rates are therefore usually calculated on the basis of "khandis" rather than that of a ton, and even when a ship is being chartered, the charterer and the owner, calculate in terms of "khandis" carried by the ship. The same calculation is made by the shipping agent when charging his rate to the shippers for their cargo. Where rates are charged per package, this factor does not enter into calculation. But as a matter of fact, the shipowners do mentally calculate on the "khandi" basis, then look to the size and nature of the packages, estimate the number of packages that can be carried in his ship and then charge the rate for each package of the same nature and size, and thus arrive at the rates for different types of packages of different sizes.

The "khandi" basis therefore is of great importance to the charterer and cargo of a sailing vessel. Both the shipowners and the shipping agents base their calculations

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[*] See Appendix D

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on this factor. This "khandi" basis, however, is more prevalent in Karachi, Cutch, Kathiawar and Gujerat. In Bombay, Konkan and Malabar the "per package" or "per ton" basis is more prevalent.

Thus, in order to have a rough idea of the prevailing charter rates, one can just find out the prevailing cargo rates at any given time and can conclude that the charter rates would be about 20 to 25% lower than the cargo rates at that time. This would prove to be a better basis for our calculation than to prepare a separate schedule for charter rates as such for various periods. These cargo rates will therefore be mentioned hereafter in this chapter.

2. Cargo Rates :—These rates are also initially calculated on the basis of "khandi" of the cargo to be carried. Whether the rate charged is per package or per ton, the "khandi" basis enters into the calculation all the same.

Here as in the case of charter rates, all the factors mentioned before which determine the charter rates also determine the cargo rates. There are the questions of demand and supply, the nature, size and the weight of the packages, the length of the voyage, part of the season, and other related conditions, which enter into the calculation of the charterer or the owner when he allots space to the shippers and charges rates of freight for the cargo.

But in view of the fact that such charterer, who is often the shipping agent, has to render more service in dealing with many shippers and has also to take the risk of paying to the owners for empty space on occasions if he does not find full cargo, the shipping agent charges higher rate of freight than the charter rate, in order to include in the former rate his remuneration for his services as agent and some profit. He has to maintain a staff for the purpose, to pay to the stevedores and also to pay other incidental charges from his own capital. For this reason, he usually charges about 20 or 25% higher rate of freight than the charter rate. On some occasions, the freight rate may be higher than this percentage if there is a sudden rise in demand for the carriage of cargo after a ship is chartered.

But there is also the possibility of a drop in the demand, and the charterer is not only unable to charge higher rate of freight but is sometimes forced to forego a portion or the whole of his commission and occasionally even to work at a loss. At times he has to despatch the ship with empty space on it. Thus, we may take it that the charterer who accepts cargo of other shippers for shipment by vessel chartered by him, charges on an average for the season about 20 to 25% higher rate for the cargo than the charter rate that he pays to the owner.

There is one factor in connection with these rates which must be taken into account, when considering the question of rates of freight for cargo and charter rate for the ship. That factor is the seasonal variations in rates which does not obtain in the steamship traffic.

These variations are occasioned by the fact that the shipping season of nine to ten months for the sailing vessel is roughly divided into three periods of about three months each. The first period is one of September, October, November; the second is one of December, January and February, ; and the third is one of March, April and May. Often, month of May has to be treated by itself. The rise and fall in the sailing vessel rates which are not fixed and which are difficult to be fixed, follow usually these three fairly-marked periods and are uniform in their rise and fall in each of these three periods if taken from year to year except in the month of May when the rates soar to any abnormal height without any standard. The rates are thus rather high in the first period, as it is the beginning of the season when only a small number of ships are available for the traffic, the rainy season is not completely at an end on the west coast, and the risks at sea are not usually reduced. During the second period from December to February, the rates are moderate, because most of the ships are available for charter, the sea is fairly calm, and the risks are far less than in other periods. But during this period, the northward movement is slow owing to the existence of the North-East trade winds, and the freight rates are therefore higher for northward journey than for southward journey particularly on the routes on which there is a large demand as in the case of Malabar-Bombay traffic. This is not however the case with the Bombay-Karachi traffic as there is no large movement of cargo from Bombay to Karachi. On the whole, during this period, the rates are lower than in the other two periods.

During the third period, the rates show an upward tendency from March and reach their apex in May. The reasons are obvious. The season is gradually coming to a close, the ships try to return to their home ports, lesser number of ships are available for charter for distant traffic, merchants are anxious to despatch and to import as much cargo as possible so as to make provision for the monsoon period before the Southwest Monsoon breaks by the end of May. Thus on the one hand there is an increase in the quantity of cargo to be transported, while on the other hand, there is a decrease in the number of ships. This fact leads to an increase in the charter rates and therewith the rates of freight during this period are also increased. The exporters and importers rush for exporting and importing cargo during this period and the rise in rates is automatically achieved by the simple law of demand and supply.

With these preliminary remarks, on the basic factors which determine the rates, we give below the schedule of the rates of freight in respect of cargo which usually moves on the various routes. We have, however, to bear in mind that the rates given for different routes are averages for the whole season and they may appear high in some cases if any one period is considered. We have also to bear in mind that on the same route or in the same zone, the rates for outward and inward voyages are not the same, nor the cargo available is the same on both the outward and inward voyages. Nor are the quantities of cargo carried equal each way. On the outward voyage, a ship may get full load as in the case of a voyage from Malabar where

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full load of timber cargo as from Calicut or Cochin or of tiles from Mangalore for Bombay, is always available. But on the voyage from Bombay to Malabar a ship hardly gets full load or any cargo at all, particularly when there are Government restrictions on export of certain commodities.

Another factor that is to be taken into consideration is that shipowners or shipping agents prefer to load a ship for a single port, since much detention is caused to the ship if it has to call at several ports on the voyage to discharge parcels of cargo. And if a ship has to load for different ports, the tindel has to apportion his space for the stowage of cargo for such different ports which he finds difficult to do in the small space available on his ship. Moreover, there is often very little cargo offering at intermediate ports in the place of the cargo to be landed. Consequently when a ship has to call at more than one port for discharging cargo, the rates charged for all cargo are decidedly higher than the rates charged when a ship is to load full cargo for one port only. The shippers will not like to pay such higher rates if an alternative direct ship is available.

The rates given below therefore are in the first place average for the 1942-43 and 1943-44 seasons and secondly for a full load cargo for one port only. Any deviation from the latter must mean higher rates of freight. The same remark applies to the hire payable for chartering ships. In the case of charter hire, however, full load cargo has always to be found by the charterer; otherwise he will have to pay dead freight to the owner for the empty space if left on the ship at the time of sailing. So the factor of full load cargo does not operate in the case of fluctuations in the rates of charter hire. The charterer has to pay for full load cargo. Therefore in the case of charter hire other factors mentioned above operate which might put up the rates.

The following rates must therefore be considered as hedged in by all the conditions previously mentioned. For the sake of convenience, they are classified according to the traffic routes followed by the ships which apparently serve as natural basis of classification. The rates are :—

ROUTE & CARGO.	APPROXIMATE RATE OF FREIGHT.
I. KARACHI-KATHIAWAR & CUTCH.	
(1) Cotton in bales ..	i. Rs. 12-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft. (for North Kathiawar & Cutch Ports, such as Kundla, Mandvi, Bedi, Navlakhi, Okha and Salaya).
	ii. Rs. 15-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft. (for South Kathiawar Ports, such as Veraval, Porbunder, Mahuva and Bhavnagar).
(2) Foodgrains ..	i. Rs. 11-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. (for North Kathiawar and Cutch Ports).
	ii. Rs. 14-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. (for South Kathiawar Ports).
(3) Cotton Seeds ..	i. Rs. 12-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. (for North Kathiawar and Cutch Ports).
	ii. Rs. 15-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. (for South Kathiawar Ports).
(4) General Cargo ..	i. Rs. 11-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c. ft. whichever is more (for North Kathiawar and Cutch Ports).
	ii. Rs. 14-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 cft. whichever is more (for South Kathiawar ports).

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II. KATHIAWAR & CUTCH-KARACHI.

(1) Oil	Rs. 10-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft. or 20 cwts. whichever is more.
(2) Groundnut in Shells ..	Rs. 15-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft. or 20 cwts. whichever is more.
(3) Cement	Rs. 5-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.
(4) General Cargo ..	Rs. 8-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 cft. whichever is more.

III. KARACHI-BOMBAY.

(1) Cotton in Bales ..	Rs. 4-0-0 per bale of the average weight of 400 lbs. or Rs. 18-0-0 per ton of 40 c.ft.
(2) Foodgrains ..	Rs. 17-0-0 „ „ „ 20 cwts.
(3) General Cargo ..	Rs. 18-0-0 „ „ „ 20 cwts. or 40 cft. whichever is more.

IV. BOMBAY-KARACHI.

(1) Oil	Rs. 17-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 cft. whichever is more.
(2) Cotton Piecegoods	Rs. 18-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft.
(3) General Cargo ..	Rs. 18-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft. or 20 cwts. whichever is more.

V. KARACHI-MALABAR.

(1) Cotton in Bales ..	Rs. 26-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft.
(2) Foodgrains ..	Rs. 30-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.
(3) Cement	Rs. 25-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.
(4) General Cargo ..	Rs. 30-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c. ft. whichever is more.

VI. MALABAR-KARACHI.

(1) Cocoanuts in Shells	Rs. 18-0-0 per 1000 pieces.
(2) Timber logs ..	Rs. 60-0-0 per ton of 50 c. ft.
(3) Timber Scantlings	Rs. 45-0-0 per ton of 50 c. ft.
(4) Tiles ..	Rs. 60-0-0 per 1000 pieces.
(5) Coir and Coir matting	Rs. 55-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft.

(6) Spices	Rs. 30-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c. ft. whichever is more.
(7) General Cargo ..	Rs. 30-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c. ft. whichever is more.

VII. KATHIAWAR-BOMBAY.

(1) Cement ..	Rs. 11-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. from the Port of Okha.
(2) Cement ..	Rs. 9-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. from the Port of Porbander.
(3) Seeds	Rs. 12-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.
(4) Groundnuts in Shells	Rs. 16-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c. ft. whichever is more.
(5) General Cargo ..	Rs. 13-8-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c. ft. whichever is more.

VIII. BOMBAY-KATHIAWAR:

(1) Cotton Piecegoods	Rs. 12-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft.
(2) Coal	Rs. 12-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.
(3) General Cargo ..	Rs. 12-8-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c. ft. whichever is more.

IX. KATHIAWAR-MALABAR:

(1) Cotton in Bales ..	Rs. 21-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft.
(2) Cotton Seeds ..	Rs. 18-0-0 „ „ „ 20 cwts.
(3) Foodgrains ..	Rs. 22-0-0 „ „ „ 20 cwts.
(4) Cement	Rs. 16-0-0 „ „ „ 20 cwts.
(5) Groundnut in Shells	Rs. 20-0-0 „ „ „ 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.
(6) General Cargo ..	Rs. 18-0-0 of 40 c.ft. whichever is more.

X. MALABAR-KATHIAWAR:

(1) Timber logs ..	Rs. 52-0-0 per ton of 50 c. ft.
(2) Timber Scantlings	Rs. 38-0-0 per ton of 50 c. ft.
(3) Tiles	Rs. 52-0-0 per 1000 tiles.

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(4) Cocoanuts in shells	Rs. 15-0-0 per 1000 pieces.
(5) Coir and Coir matting.	Rs. 45-0-0 per ton of 40 cft.
(6) Spices	Rs. 28-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c. ft. whichever is more.
(7) General Cargo	Rs. 28-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.

XI. BOMBAY-MALABAR & S. KANARA:

(From Bombay to Malabar & Kanara ports commencing from Mangalore to Cochin and Alleppey).

(1) Cotton in Bales	Rs. 12-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft.
(2) Foodgrains	Rs. 11-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.
(3) General Cargo	Rs. 11-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.

XII. MALABAR-BOMBAY:

(1) Timber logs	Rs. 42-0-0 per ton of 50 cft.
(2) Timber Scantlings	Rs. 28-0-0 per ton of 50 cft.
(3) Tiles per 1000	Rs. 40-0-0 per 1000.
(4) Coir and Mattings	Rs. 37-8-0 per ton of 40 c. ft.
(5) Cocoanut in Shells	Rs. 12-8-0 per 1000.
(6) Spices	Rs. 25-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 cft. whichever is more.
(7) General Cargo	Rs. 25-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.

XIII. BOMBAY-SOUTHERN GUJERAT:

i. e. to Southern ports like Bilimora, Bulsar, Navsari & Surat).

(1) General Cargo	Rs. 9-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c. ft. whichever is more.

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XIV. SOUTHERN GUJERAT-BOMBAY: (From Bilimora, Bulsar, Navsari and Surat).	
(1) Timber Scantlings	Rs. 16-0-0 per ton of 50 c. ft.
(2) Timber logs. ..	Rs. 21-0-0 per ton of 50 c. ft.
(3) General Cargo ..	Rs. 9-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c. ft. whichever is more.
XV. BOMBAY-NORTH GUJERAT & EAST KATHIAWAR: (To Broach, Cambay, Jambussar, Dholera and Bhavnagar in Kathiawar).	
(1) General Cargo ..	Rs. 12-8-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.
XVI. NORTH GUJERAT & EAST KATHIAWAR-BOMBAY:	
(1) General Cargo ..	Rs. 12-8-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.
XVII. BOMBAY-KONKAN & N. KANARA: (Including all coastal ports from Bombay to Bhatkal but excluding the creek ports).	
(1) Foodgrains ..	Rs. 10-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.
(2) General Cargo ..	Rs. 9-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.
XVIII. KONKAN & N. KANARA-BOMBAY:	
(1) Charcoal:	
i. Northern ports upto Dabhol and ports near Bombay such as Dharamtar, Pen, Nagothna	Rs. 9-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.

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ii. Southern ports below Dabhol, such as from Jaigad, to Goa and N. Kanara ports, and ports in the creeks such as Roha.	Rs. 11-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.
(2) General Cargo ..	Rs. 11-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.
XIX & XX. BOMBAY-MARMAGOA: & MARMAGOA-	
(1) General Cargo ..	Rs. 11-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.
XXI. BOMBAY-TUTICORIN & COLOMBO: & XXII: TUTICORIN & COLOMBO-BOMBAY:	
(1) General Cargo ..	Rs. 45-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.
XXIII. KARACHI & KATHIAWAR - TUTICORIN & COLOMBO: & XXIV. TUTICORIN & COLOMBO-KATHIAWAR & KARACHI:	
(1) General Cargo ..	Rs. 55-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.
XXV. BOMBAY-BUSRAH:	
(1) Piecegoods and Case Cargo ..	Rs. 75-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft.
(2) General Cargo ..	Rs. 70-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.

XXVI. BUSRAH-BOMBAY:	
(1) Dates, Dry fruits etc.	Rs. 40-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.
(2) Mats, Carpets, etc.	Rs. 50-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft.
(3) General Cargo ..	Rs. 45-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.
XXVII. KARACHI & KATHIAWAR-BUSRAH:	
(1) Piecegoods and Cotton F. P. Bales	Rs. 55-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft.
(2) General Cargo ..	Rs. 50-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft. or 20 cwts. whichever is more.
XXVIII: BUSRAH-KARACHI & KATHIAWAR:	
(1) Dates and Dry fruits	Rs. 35-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.
(2) Mats, Carpets, etc.	Rs. 45-0-0 per ton of 40 c. ft.
(3) General Cargo ..	Rs. 40-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.
XXIX. MARMAGOA-BUSRAH:	
(1) Charcoal ..	Rs. 3-8-0 per bag of one Bengali Maund or Rs. 95-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts.
(2) General Cargo ..	Rs. 75-0-0 per ton of 20 cwts. or 40 c.ft. whichever is more.

There is usually no direct traffic from Busrah to Marmagoa, and Marmagoa gets its imports of Arabian products through Bombay.

We may again state here that the above rates are average rates for the whole season and not for any particular period of the season. And they are wartime rates calculated on the 1942-43 and 1943-44 conditions prevailing on the west coast. They only indicate the possible rates which any shipping agent might quote for any particular route. These rates, if charged for the whole season, should meet the normal requirements of all the parties concerned in the traffic. They may not be applicable to any one period of the season.

We now give herebelow a few rates for the three preceding seasons along with some prewar rates :—

Some Comparative Rates (Averages for each Season).

From	To	Unit	Prewar Rs.	1941–42 Rs.	1942–43 Rs.	1943–44 Rs.
Navlakhi or Bedi.	Karachi	Per ton	2½	6	6½	9
,,	Bombay	,,	6	7½	12	14
,,	Marmagoa	,,	6½	8	13½	16
,,	Calicut.	,,	8	20	25	40
Manglore	Bombay.					
Tiles		per 1000:	12	20	30	35
Timber.		per ton:	10	12	22	36
Malwan	Bombay.					
Bags of Sand.		per 100:	15	20	40	50
Malabar (Cochin, Calicut)	Bombay.					
Timber Scantlings.		per ton:	12	15	22	28
,, Logs.		,, ,,	20	32	42	48
Cocoanuts (in husks)		per Khandi	5	7	9	9
Coir & Coirmatting.		,, ,,	6	12	16	18
General Cargo.		per ton:	15	18	24	26
Tiles.		per 1000:	14	25	32	40
Malabar	Karachi					
Tiles.		per 1000	20	35	55	60
Timber Scantlings.		per ton:	15	20	32	40
,, Logs.		,, ,,	23	30	50	60
General Cargo.		,, ,,	16	21	28	30
Malabar	Broach					
Cocoanuts (in husks)		per 1000:	15	20	22	25
Tiles		,, ,,	25	40	52	58
Karachi	Bombay					
General Cargo		per ton:	7	12	16	18
Cotton bales		,, Bale.	2½	4	6	7
Karachi	Kathiawar (North)					
Cotton bales		per bale	1½	3½	5	6½
General Cargo		per ton:	5	6	6½	9

From	To	Unit	Prewar Rs.	1941–42 Rs.	1942–43 Rs.	1943–44 Rs.
Karachi General Cargo	Kathiawar (South)	per ton	6	7½	12	14
Karachi General Cargo	Malabar (Cochin)	per ton	8	21	28	40
Cotton bales.		per bale	3	5½	10	15
Karachi Cotton bales	Marmagoa	per bale	2½	4	8	12
General Cargo		per ton.	7	18	25	35
Bombay General Cargo	Kathiawar	per ton	6	8	12	14
Bombay General Cargo	Marmagoa	,, ,,	4	7½	9	9
Bombay General Cargo	Malabar	,, ,,	5	8½	9½	11
Bombay General Cargo	Bhavnagar	,, ,,	6	8½	12	13
Bombay General Cargo	Karachi	,, ,,	6½	9	12½	14
Gujerat General Cargo	Kathiawar	per ton.	2½	7½	9½	12
Gujerat General Cargo	Bombay	,, ,,	4½	7½	9½	14
Gujerat General Cargo	Malabar	,, ,,	6½	9½	20	30
Gujerat General Cargo	Karachi	,, ,,	7	10	14	16
Gujerat General Cargo	Marmagoa	,, ,,	6½	10	18	25

The above rates are only averages for the whole season in the respective years. The prewar rates are averages for about five years previous to 1939. The average rates for 1943-44 season appear low in view of the high rise in the rates for some articles. But if one takes the average for the whole year, the average rates mentioned above will be considered appropriate.

The wartime rise in rates does not mean that the shipowners have been making huge profits. The wages and the expenses of maintenance have risen by about 300% and similar rise has taken place in the cost of construction. The increases for 1943-44 season therefore only approximate the increased cost of maintenance and construction. In fact, as we shall see later under Chapter XV "Maintenance and Earnings", ships find it difficult to make both ends meet if they make their calculations of profit and loss from strict accounting point of view.

Other matters relating to this subject are considered earlier in this chapter as well as in the chapters from 15 to 19 which may be referred.

Fixed Rates.

It is often felt by many that it would be desirable to fix rates of freight for the cargo carried by sailing ships on the coast of India, especially on the west coast. In fact attempts have actually been made in that direction, but the same have not yet been met with success.

Fixation of rates, if possible, is desirable, and attempts made should be appreciated and encouraged, because everyone will thereby be benefitted. Merchants can then regulate prices of goods on the basis of the fixed rates. The public will not be affected by fluctuation in prices following fluctuations in rates of freight. Thereby a sort of normal state of affairs will be established in the community which in these days depends for its requirements to a great extent on the sailing vessel traffic. Theoretically the proposal is a sound one, but the problem is beset with numerous difficulties.

In the first place, the 5300 ships on the west coast of India are owned by no less than 3500 owners. How are we going to bring them into the fold? They are mostly illiterate and each one has his own problem to think about.

Again not only are there numerous owners, but they are scattered all over the coast. There are about 200 large and small centres where such owners and tindels reside in fairly large numbers; but there are individual owners who

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reside in several other places all over the coast. How are these to be approached to induce them to agree to fixed rates? Their concurrence is necessary for the success of the scheme of fixing rates of freight. But even if they are induced to agree to fixed rates, it will not be possible for them to put those rates in practice owing to the fact that the conditions prevailing in different parts of the coast are not the same. The requirements of all shipowners are not the same. In cases in which the shipowners themselves are tindels of their ships, one middleman disappears and the tindels can afford to quote lower rates. In some cases, the tindels and the crew have a sort of working partnership with the owner for running the ship for the whole season. In others, there is the net payment of wages to the tindel and the crew on monthly basis. Then there is the question of periodical rise and fall in the number of ships available for charter, and the increase and fall in the quantity of cargo available for carriage. There are further the questions of S. W. Monsoon and N. E. Trade Winds, the large difference in the time taken for inward and outward voyages in the same part of the season on the same route, and further there is the difference in the nature of cargo carried. Very often ships have to sail in ballast one way, and the expenses of such voyage in ballast may be added to the freight on the voyage in the other direction in which cargo is available. If the ships do not thus sail in ballast and decide to load cargo at a port where enough cargo is not easily available, they may be detained long for a small cargo with consequent additional expenses, and the shippers of cargo will not like the ship to be so detained with their cargo in it. To avoid this, therefore, ships sail in ballast and make up for their empty run by charging higher rates on the voyage from the port where sufficient cargo is available. Besides, the freight for the straight voyage will always be less than if the ship is required to call at one or two intermediate ports to discharge or to lift cargo.

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The case of steamships is different. The cargo to be shipped by steamers is booked in advance, the steamship agents know beforehand what cargo is to be lifted or discharged at various ports, the movements of steamers are regular and it is possible for steamer agents to ascertain the movements of staple commodities on the coast and to fix steamers accordingly so that the steamers can be berthed accordingly at any time during the whole year. The monsoon does not affect the steamers, nor does the question of difficulties of inward and outward voyages on account of favourable or unfavourable winds arise in the case of steamers as it does in the case of sailing ships. The steamers have practically a flat rate for a particular area based on the tonnage scale adopted for those localities from where the cargo is shipped. Usually the scale of a Chamber of Commerce is adopted for the purpose of these calculations and a fixed rate per ton is then adopted. For instance, rice is taken at 20 cwts. to the ton, but chillies in bundles are taken at 4 cwts in weight to the ton, and then the rate of freight per ton may then be the same for rice and chillies, say, for instance Rs. 22 per ton between Bombay and Karachi. In the case of sailing vessels, it is difficult to adopt such a flat rate. The rate must depend on the conditions prevailing at the particular port of loading and port of discharge as would particularly affect sailing vessels such as the distance, the shipping facilities available at the two ports, the possibility of securing return cargo, the period of detention for discharging and loading of cargo, the seasonal demand in a particular part of the season and such other conditions which we have mentioned in the earlier part of this chapter which go into making the rates of freight for sailing vessels.

Greater difficulty arises when some ships are run by the owners themselves, who further act as their own tindels. Many others are chartered by shipping agents. In the latter case, the rates must be decidedly higher since the shipping agent would obviously ask for some return for the services he renders and the expenses to which he

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is put in the course of the business. If the rates are fixed on higher level as charged by the shipping agents, then the public will be deprived of the benefit of the lower rates that shipowners who run their own ships often ask. If the rates are fixed on the lower level as the latter would ask, then it will inflict hardship on the shipping agents, and an important functionary in the trade would be lost to the trade which would be seriously dislocated without him. The individual shipowners would not be able to replace him.

Another factor which is to be taken into account is the periodical fluctuation in rates of freight according as the ships are available or the quantity of cargo to be moved. We have explained this subject fully in the preceeding pages. These periodical fluctuations which depend upon supply of ships and the amount of cargo to be carried, would make the problem of fixing the rates the most difficult one. The trends of rates would be changing according to the conditions all the same, whether the rates are fixed or not. All the shipowners cannot be compelled to accept one fixed rate for the cargo in any one route as each one has his own requirements to think about. The fixation of rates will therefore have very little effect on actual trade. Even if the rates are fixed, what machinery is there behind the rates to see that they are observed? If these rates are divergent from the ordinary law of demand and supply, they are more likely to be disregarded than observed. If the rates fixed are lower than what the shipowners would reasonably ask for, then it would be a great hardship on them; and if they are higher, they would affect trade and the general public. In all the cases, therefore, there will be the creation and growth of a Black Market in one form or another and no one can prevent it. Fixation of rates further presupposes a strong Government machinery to enforce them. But the cost of establishing a machinery at more than 200 places to enforce the fixed rates will not be commensurate with the benefits derived therefrom.

Perhaps at some important centres where intelligent owners are stationed, the owners may help the Government in fixing and enforcing fixed rates. But if this is not possible at so many minor ports, there would be an endless confusion created in the trade and the scheme is likely to result in failure. It must also be remembered that several ships ply between British India and the Indian States ports and between these latter ports and Marmagoa. It might be possible to induce the States to accept the rates fixed by the Government; but for obvious reasons, such rates will not be enforcible in Marmagoa. And further that such rates cannot be fixed in respect of ships registered in the Portuguese territory.

Rates of freight therefore can be fixed and enforced only if Government takes over full control of all the ships (except those registered at the Portuguese ports) and run them on Government account. Under such a system all persons desiring to transport cargo by sailing vessels will be called upon to register their requirements with the officer appointed for the purpose at each port. Several such offices and agencies will have to be established at various ports on the coast. If the cost of such establishments all over the coast is taken into account, the fixed rates will be almost the maximum rates of 1944 season (as operating after March 1944). Thereby the shippers will have to pay these maximum rates even in the first two periods of the season, and the trade will be loser to that extent.

Thus considering the question from every point of view, the fixation of rates appears an impracticable problem, and the present system based on the supply and demand should be continued in the absence of any better or improved arrangement. At the most maximum and minimum rates may be recommended by the Government for the three different periods of the season.

The only system which was well considered and was at one time approved by the War Transport Department of the Government of India and which would have been

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a fair substitute for fixed rates, was unfortunately not adopted by the Government. This was the proposed Zone System for each of the routes of traffic on the west coast of India. We shall discuss the pros and cons of this system in a later chapter in this book. But it is enough here to state that this system, as we shall see later, would have brought about an indirect control of rates and would have achieved some uniformity in them. It would have had the advantage of elasticity and the public would not have been practically bound down to one fixed rate wherein they would not get the advantage of lower rates. The merchants would have had the option of booking cargo with the Shipping Agent appointed by the Government for the zone, or to hire ships for themselves and carry their own cargo as hithertobefore. The Shipping Agents would no doubt have had the exclusive right of carrying Government and Military cargo only at fixed rates in the particular zone for which he would have been appointed; but he would not have had the monopoly of carrying public cargo also at those rates. For the most part, the rates for public cargo would have followed the Government rates and a fairly uniform system of rates would have come into operation for the zone in due course.

This proposal was, however, shelved by the Government of India for one reason or another, and the Government lost the opportunity of securing a type of equilibrium and uniformity in rates which would have later served to fix the rates. It was the most unfortunate decision to sidetrack the Zone system, since experience has shown that the freight rates could not be checked and the consequent confusion could not be avoided. Fairly uniform rates as might have been fixed with shipping agents, would have had the steadying effect on the entire trade. And though the rise in the cost of living and maintenance expenses are mainly responsible for the abnormal rise in rates of freight, the other factors which are also responsible for the same such as forcing ships on long routes as between Karachi and Cochin which made the owners to demand higher

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rates of freight, competition amongst so many contractors in the same route for securing ships for their requirements and similar other factors would not have come into operation. This loss of the opportunity naturally deferred the question of achieving uniformity of rates. If the zone scheme had been adopted the whole trade would have been regulated, and the periodical revision of rates by the Government for their cargo according to the situation, would have applied the salutary check on any possible profiteering by the shipping agents at the cost of the shipowners or consumers. The shipowners on the other hand would have been assured of steady income on uniform basis during any one period of the season. They would thus have been trained for a future regime of fixed rates. A system therefore which would have proved of immense benefit to the traffic and which has so many favourable potentialities was given up for no apparently strong reason without assessing the benefits that could have accrued by its adoption.

CHAPTER XII.

INSURANCE.

One of the main factors impeding the growth of the sailing vessel traffic on the coast of India is the dearth of insurance companies booking insurance on the sailing ships and their cargo.

Before the present war, there were only one or two Indian insurance companies that were accepting risk on the hull, and only a few more that were accepting risk on the cargo carried by sailing ships. General conditions were not favourable for such a development, the traffic itself could not bear this additional cost, and people were therefore indifferent to this aspect of the traffic. Rates of freight were poor and the owners were not able to cover the hulls of ships by insurance. Naturally, therefore, the first incentive for the formation and growth of insurance companies was absent. The same indifference existed in the case of cargo shipped per sailing vessels. Therefore, the only important firm booking insurance on hull was that of Liladhar Pragji. There were, of course, a few more firms and a few more individual merchants who accepted insurance on cargo. But even the number of such people hardly exceeded a dozen. Amongst such insurers may be mentioned the firm of Bhabas of Beyt (Okha) who have been in the line for several years.

But the war has changed the complex of things, and sailing ships are used more extensively in place of steamers; big shipping companies have come into the field; and the need of insuring cargo and hulls of sailing ships is naturally recognised by them. Volume of trade has increased and the rates of freight are favourable. The owners and shippers therefore can afford to pay for insurance.

The risk shouldered by the insurance companies, no doubt, is very great, and without wider scope for reinsurance, there is usually a reluctance on the part of the few insurance companies which accept such business, to cover any very large risks on sailing ships and|or their cargo. But thanks to the enterprising spirit of a few companies, both Indian and British, a gradual development is being made in the direction of removing this reluctance. The Indian companies are boldly leading the way in this movement, and we have hopes that they would not lag behind in further organisation of the traffic.

The present position, however, is that only one British insurance company and three or four Indian companies have come forward to accept the risk on hull; while about five or six British insurance companies and about a dozen Indian companies have now been accepting risk on the cargo carried by sailing vessels. However, before the present war, hardly any British company was covering risk on the hull or on the cargo carried by sailing ships on the west coast of India. The position is now changed and even the British companies have entered the field along

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Seth Walchand Hirachand, one of the Founders of the Scindia Steam Nav. Co. Ltd., and its present Chairman, due to whose encouragement and advice the Author entered the Shipping Line in 1925.

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with the Indian companies. But for the readiness of such Indian and British companies to go to the assistance of this traffic, no rapid, development would have been possible.

However, in the present circumstances, even these companies have to work rather in a subdued manner within a limited scope. In order to protect their interest, they have to charge much higher rates in the case of sailing ships and their cargo than those charged for steamships and their cargo. This obviously is a handicap on the development of the sailing ship traffic. Even in accepting the risk, the companies, unlike that in the case of steamships, have to make several reservations and to take note of various other factors as we shall see later. And above all, the element of "unreliability" of various nature in the case of sailing vessels enters into their decision to accept the risk at all, and if they do accept it, the same element also enters into their calculation of the rate to be charged.

This unreliability and consequent uncertainty proceed in the first place from the fact that there is no classification of sailing vessels as to their seaworthiness. In the case of steamships, every insurer can get full information and history of a steamer from Lloyd's Register of Shipping wherein steamers are classified according to their age and fitness for sea voyage as found out from periodical surveys and according to other prescribed rules. The captain and his officers, the engine room staff and even some of the crew are all qualified and experienced men. Being thus duly qualified by training and experience, they can be easily relied upon for the safe conduct of ships in their charge. But the same cannot be said confidently about the sailing vessels, and the insurer has practically to grope in the dark. He has no other guide excepting his own experience and the meagre records that he may have got about various types of sailing ships and their tindels. The risk involved is therefore very great.

Consequently, the rates charged are usually high and the risk accepted is also of a limited nature.

Having explained this general nature of the subject under review, we shall now proceed herebelow to the the consideration of the two types of insurance in respect of sailing ships, that is, (1) Hull Insurance and (2) Cargo Insurance, reserving our remarks for the concluding portion of this chapter on other related matters.

Hull Insurance.

Insurance of the hull of a ship is also of recent origin in India.

In normal times about 90% of the sailing ships are uninsured. Most of the shipowners are illiterate and they do not therefore appreciate the benefits of insurance. They think it useless to pay a high premium out of their small earnings until a calamity has occurred when they might repent for their mistake. And if a calamity does occur, it is all a matter of fate to them. "The ship was destined to be sunk and it sank", they would say, and add that "perhaps we could not have got the money from the insurance company; and if we were destined to lose money at all in the form of the ship or otherwise, we would have lost it just the same in some other way", they would console themselves.

This being the general outlook, their attitude towards insuring their ships is one of resigned non-chalance. Besides, the benefits that are derived by those who insure their ships are not very encouraging to others except in the case of total loss. Such unattractive benefits, therefore, do not serve to dispel this fatalistic outlook on their part, and they are not encouraged to pay the high premium sometimes even to the extent of 9% of the value of the ships.

Besides, the volume of sailing ship traffic scattered as it is at so many centres appeared too small to merit consideration. No efforts were therefore made either to persuade the insurance companies to interest themselves extensively in the business, or to explain the advantages of insurance to the shipowners. No one therefore paid any serious attention to the development of insurance in the

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sailing ship traffic; and although the war has given the needed impetus which has made rapid development possible, the restrictions imposed by insurance companies in self-protection while accepting risk on hull and cargo do not cater to the free growth of the traffic or of insurance business in respect of the traffic.

Thus, at present, the hull is insured only against Total Loss Only (TLO) ; but no war risk insurance cover is issued in respect of hulls. The Hull Insurance Policy usually does not cover partial damage or "beaching". Only the "total loss" or "constructive total loss" is covered, and that also at a very high rate of premium. Further restriction is that the amount of cover is limited to two-thirds of the value. And some companies make a further stipulation that only 75% to 91% of this twothirds value will be actually paid in the event of claim arising. That is to say the assured gets only anything between 50 to 60% of the actual value of the ship, while he pays premium for the two-thirds of the value of his ship. Even such vital parts as masts, sails and rudder are not included in the cover if individually damaged. Masts, sails and rudder are separately insured in some countries; but no company in India is willing to accept risk of this type.

And yet with all these limitations the rate of premium on hull is high.

There are, however, no fixed rates of premium in respect of insurance on hull. There is no schedule as such and every insurer follows his own standard. There are nevertheless some traditional rates of a sliding nature, and generally these rates follow the progress of the season in inverse direction. In the market, however, a sort of uniformity is being achieved so that the insurance companies without an agreement amongst themselves have come to a stage of standardising these rates to a great extent by common experience of working. Thereby it may be concluded that standardisation is not impossible. Thus the rate is highest at the beginning of the season, (that is, by the end of August when the sailing vessel

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season begins with Cocoanut Day), being about 9% of the value. That is to say that if a ship is intended to be run from about the opening period in August and the owner wants to get his ship insured, then the insurer would ask as high a rate of premium as 9% of the value for the whole season. There will be no rebates therein even if market rate of premium falls after the season has proceeded by two or three months. The idea is that in the beginning of the season, the risks are great and therefore the highest rate is charged which then applies for the whole season. As the season advances and the number of shipping days decrease, the rate of premium falls down gradually. And if any owner wants to insure his ship some time in January, the rate would be about 6%; it would be about 3% in March and about 2% in April. It then keeps at that level till the end of the season. Apparently, the risks of weather in April and May due to the approaching south-west monsoon are not taken into account in the case of hull in calculating the rate of premium. The rate falls with the reduction in the number of shipping days; while in the case of insurance on cargo the rate actually increases with the decrease in the number of shipping days. But generally no insurance is accepted on sailing vessels after April 30, and all risks end by June 2nd.

The insurer therefore has to be circumspect in many a way to protect his interest. He has to depend on his experience and knowledge alone in the matter of this risk. The unreliability of the crew, the uncertainty of weather, want of classification of ships as to their seaworthiness, difficulty of collecting correct information regarding loss and the state of weather at the time of loss, and want of facilities for communicating with the ships in distress at sea in order to send them timely succour or salvage their cargo, make the position of an insurance company extremely difficult in the matter of insurance on hull and cargo. The management has to be ever watchful with their eyes on the weather, and a little slackness in watching the progress of the season and the weather is likely to cost them much.

And yet it can be said to the credit of the crew that the reports of the total loss are few and far between. Except in the event of sudden and unusual storms such losses are very rare indeed. And generally insurance companies have not to suffer heavily in the matter. During the last season (May 1943) however, insurance companies had to suffer very heavy losses owing to a suddenly developed storm accompanied by rain which swept the west coast from Bombay and Kathiawar down south up to Tuticorin. About 200 ships were reported sunk and 400 more damaged by the storm and rain.

Cargo Insurance.

Before the war, very few shippers were insuring cargo by sailing ships. The system had not developed to any very great extent and only two or three insurance companies and a few private merchants used to accept such risk in a very limited manner. The shippers therefore had not sufficient inducement to insure their cargo and they resigned themselves to fate. But, times have changed and the war has brought many dangers of journey in its trail. The stimulus thus given by the war to this tendency of insuring hulls of sailing ships as well as the cargo carried by them is appreciably growing. Both the shippers and insurers are helping the process in right earnest. This enables us to discuss the subject herein more clearly and see how an insurer calculates the rates he charges, what are the limitations of the present system and to what extent development is possible.

The factors that determine the decision and calculations of an insurer for accepting the risk and charging rates in respect of the hull of a sailing ship are also applicable to risk accepted by him on cargo.

There are, however, several other additional features which an insurance company has to take into account in the case of cargo to be insured. The company has to make sure about the nature of the cargo to be carried, the distance to be run by the ship, the period of the voyage, the

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difficulties of navigation in certain waters, sailing to creek ports, the fact whether the ship's tindel is the owner himself or a hired servant, the part of the season during which the voyage is to take place, the type of ship in which the cargo has to be carried, the packing and stowage of cargo, place of stowage whether on deck or under deck, and the name, experience and reputation of the tindel in charge of the ship. The insurer has particularly to pay his attention to the nature and value of the cargo to be carried. He must see whether it is a heavy or light cargo, whether it is valuable or otherwise and then he charges his rates accordingly. Heavy lifts like nardware and machinery, and light cargo like chillies and bidi leaves are both charged higher rates than other cargo, if accepted on usual conditions, owing to their very nature. But only 75% of the usual rate is charged if these commodities are covered against total loss only. Valuable cargo is, likewise, charged higher rates.

Much depends also on the type of the ship in which cargo is shipped and offered for insurance. Some of the ships are decked and insurance companies are willing to make some allowance in the rate of premium to be charged to the cargo carried in such ships. This consideration would be allowed in the case of Arabian and Cutch-Kathiawar and Sind type of ships which are mostly decked and are by common consent considered as strongly-built and efficient. There is also a sub-conscious feeling that the crew of these ships are very efficient navigators. The general experience of the companies in the matter of claims in respect of cargo carried in these types of ships is also such that it may warrant a small reduction in rates of premium charged to the cargo carried therein. The direction of the voyage has also to be taken into account to see whether the southwest or northwest monsoon is on.

All these points are duly considered by insurance companies while fixing their rate of premium for the cargo.

At present the oprations of Indian insurance companies include cargo carried even to the ports on the coasts of

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Persia (Persian Gulf Ports), Arabia, Africa and islands off the East African coast. That is to say, risk on cargo exported from India to such ports is covered by them. Some others are more enterprising and are accepting risk on cargo moved between any two of these distant foreign ports also.

And after all these considerations, the risk covered on the cargo is only on the F. P. A. basis for total loss of the ship with its cargo but including the risk of jettison. No W. P. A. Policy is issued. The risk is further hedged in by numerous clauses in the Policy which serve to absolve the insurer from so many responsibilities, which practically make it difficult for the assured to obtain his claim. But the insurer has no other alternative but to protect himself by such safeguards by inserting clauses in the Policy in the present undeveloped stage of the sailing vessel insurance. He is at the same time taking great risks in jettison and total loss, and often has to pay through the nose, as several insurance companies had to do last season (1943) after the sudden May storm.

The rates charged to the cargo, however, do not proceed throughout the season in inverse proportion to the advance of the season as in the case of insurance on the hull. In the case of cargo, the rate is no doubt high in the beginning of the season in August and September and also in October to some extent; it gradually falls from November and is at its lowest in December and January. It gradually rises from March and is again at its highest by the end of April and early May. In the month of May, very few insurance companies would accept any risk at all; and if they do so, the rate is very high. In May, 1944 some companies charged as much as 18% on cargo carried in sailing ships from Bombay to Kathiawar, and 20% on cargo from Bombay to Cochin, as against 1% in December (1942) and January (1943) and about 5% to 6% in May 1943. The companies were apparently scared by the storm of May 1943, and did not want to take any risks during the 1944 season. In fact only two or three companies were accepting risks after April 15, even at this high rate of premium.

As the southwest monsoon breaks at Colombo about May 20, and the Malabar coast gets disturbed from the end of April onward due to the approaching monsoon, usually, no insurance is accepted for the voyage southward after April 15. In the first fortnight of May, some insurance companies may accept risk on Arab ships going home to Arabia. Similarly insurance may also be accepted early May on Cutch-Kathiawar ships going northward to Kathiawar and Karachi from Bombay, but not for any ports south of Bombay. All these factors mainly depend on weather and on the advancing and the receding season.

The rate thus is somewhere about 2½% (this is usually expressed in Annas per Rs. 100 such as Annas 40%) in the beginning of the season, say, from Bombay to Karachi or from Bombay to Malabar; and it falls to about 1% in December and January; it gradually rises to about 1¼% in February, and to about 1½% to 1¾% in March to about 2% in April and to about 2½%, 3%, 4% and even 6% in the first and second weeks of May according to weather conditions. This year it went up even to 20% as we have seen above. After the second week risk is hardly accepted. Even during the season, the rate may go up suddenly if a warning is received of an approaching storm, or on receipt of a report of actual existence of bad weather in particular localities. Ships which may have to proceed in that direction will be charged higher rates of premium for the cargo carried in them, or insurance may even be refused in respect of such ships if they sail at all in that direction.

Thus, here again there is the " gamble in the weather " and it is this element that acts as a setback to the proper development of the insurance on sailing ships.

Let us now divide herebelow the season in four periods during which the rates of freight rise or fall according to the progress of the season. The approximate average rates asked by insurance companies would then be as below :—

From Bombay. To	**Sept. Oct. & Nov.** Annas per Rs. 100.	**Dec. Jan. & Feb.** Annas per Rs. 100.	**March & April.** Annas per Rs. 100.	**May (1st & 2nd Week)** Annas per Rs. 100.
Roha, Janjira, Mahad, Bankote.	16	6	16	36
Ratnagiri.	20	7	20	36
Marmagoa.	24	9	24	42
Kumta, Bhatkal, Honawar, Tadri.	30	11	28	48
Mangalore.	32	12	32	51
Malabar Ports up to Alleppey.	40	12	36	64
Tuticorin.	80	64	72	No insurance.
Colombo.	80	64	72	No insurance.
Ports between Bassein & Bulsar.	24	14	24	45
Bilimora.	32	14	30	52
Surat, Navsari, Broach, Matwan & Bhagwa Bunder.	32	16	30	52
Kodinar, Mangrol.	36	14	32	52
Bhavnagar.	26	12	30	52
Verawal.	22	10	26	48
Porbandar	22	10	28	46
Okha & Dwarka.	26	16	32	52
Bedi, Navlakhi.	30	16	34	54
Other Kathiawar Ports (excluding Dholera.)	32	18	34	54
Cutch (excluding Jakhau), Kundla, Tuna, Mandvi.	36	18	36	60
Karachi.	36	20	36	60
From Kathiawar:				
Between any two Kathiawar Ports.	16	8	16	28
To Gujerat.	24	10	18	36
Cutch.	24	10	24	36

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Malabar Ports up to Alleppey.	48	24	42	No insurance.
Karachi.	30	18	28	42
From Gujerat:				
To Cutch.	28	12	24	42
From Broach:				
To Bhavnagar.	24	12	32	52
Verawal.	20	10	28	50
Marmagoa.	30	12	28	48
Malabar Ports up to Alleppey.	42	20	36	60
From Mangalore:				
To Verawal, Porbandar, and other Kathiawar Ports.	42	20	36	60
From Cutch:				
Between any two Cutch Ports.	20	10	16	32
To Karachi.	30	16	28	42
To Gujerat.	32	12	30	42
From Malabar Ports:				
To Verawal, Porbandar and Kathiawar Ports.	48	20	42	64
From Karachi:				
To Bombay.	36	20	36	60
Marmagoa.	38	24	40	64
Kathiawar.	30	18	28	42
Cutch.	30	16	28	42
Malabar.	48	30	48	No insurance.

N.B.—The above rates are expressed in so many Annas per Rs. 100 of the insured value as mentioned in the Policy. Sixteen Annas make one Rupee.

In normal times the rates for Tuticorin and Colombo are not so high. The present high rates are due to war dangers in the region.

Some explanation of these rates would be useful.

In the first place, the rates quoted above are for three months in the first two categories, for two months in the

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third category and then separately for the first and second week of May. Let us explain these separately.

I. **Sept.-Oct.-Nov.:** In this period, the southwest monsoon does not entirely disappear. The weather still remains disturbed. Nearabout Bombay and south of Bombay, raining continues even in September and October, though not in November. Actually the southwest monsoon recedes from the Peninsula after October 31st and often causes severe storm attended with havoc about the end of October or in November.

In this period, therefore the rates follow this trend of the weather. They are highest in September, gradually fall in October and slightly lower in November. The specimen of rates which actually opened in September 1943 are given below (for September 15, 1943):—

From	To	Annas per Rs. 100 Value.
Bombay	Roha, Janjira, Mahad, Bankote	36
”	Ratnagiri	36
”	Marmagoa	42
”	Kumta, Bhatkal, Honawar, Tadri	48
”	Mangalore	51
”	Malabar Ports upto Alleppey	64
”	Ports between Bassein & Bulsar	45
”	Bilimora	52
”	Surat, Broach, Matwad, Navsari & Navi Bundar	52
”	Kodinar, Mangrol	54
”	Bhavnagar	48
”	Veraval	36
”	Porbandar	36
”	Kathiawar Ports (Excluding Dholera)	51
”	Cutch (Excluding Jakhau), Kundla, Tuna & Mandvi	62
”	Okha, Dwarka	56
”	Karachi	64
Kathiawar	Kathiawar Ports	40

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„	.. Gujerat Ports	48
„	.. Cutch Ports	48
„	.. Malabar Ports upto Alleppey ..	88
Gujerat	.. Cutch	62
Broach	.. Bhavnagar	52
„	.. Veraval	40
„	.. Marmagoa	52
„	.. Malabar Ports up to Alleppey ..	72
Mangalore	.. Veraval & Porbandar	72
Malabar Ports.	Veraval & Porbandar	84
Cutch	.. Cutch (Excluding Jakhau)	32
„	.. Karachi	48
„	.. Gujerat	52

This will show at what high levels the rates open in September. They are almost on par with the rates that prevail in the first and second week of May.

It will be seen that the rates for the September-October-November period appear high because of high rates for September. But in order to find out the rates prevailing in October and November, one may deduct about 60% to 67% from the rates given above for September. The result will give fairly approximate rates prevailing in October and November. For instance, the rate from Bombay for Bilimora in September was quoted at As. 52% while for October and November it was about As. 20%, giving an average of about As. 31% to As. 32%. (As. 52 in Sept. + As. 20 in October + As. 20 in November totalling As. 92 for 3 months, giving an average, per month of about As. 31. We have listed above for this period As. 32). Actually for October and November, the rates are between 30 to 40% of those prevailing in September.

II. Dec: Jan. & Feb.: The rates are lowest in this period because of the fair weather, though the Northeast Trade winds in this period considerably delay the ships sailing from southern ports to northern ports. In some cases, therefore, the rates are not necessarily the same vice versa between any two southern and northern ports.

Generally speaking, however, the rates are about 20 to 25% of those prevailing in September, and about 67 to 75% of those prevailing in October and November.

III. March and April: The rates are moderate in March, being slightly higher than those prevailing in February; but they rise in April. Many insurance companies do not accept risk after April 15, and therefore, the few that accept demand much higher rate of premium. Before this year, several companies were accepting risk up to the end of April and early May for certain directions as towards Kathiawar, Gujerat, Karachi and even up to Marmagoa. But the storm of May 1943 compelled the companies to revise their policy, and this year (1944) most of the companies stopped booking after April 15. So the rates went up even in the first fortnight of April, and during the second half of April they were almost on the level of rates in September. But, because the rates in March are low, our average is lower than the rates in April. These conditions for April should be noted and it may be taken that the rates in April are usually about 50% higher than those in March, and during 1944, they were about 67 to 75% higher during the second half of April.

IV. May: The rates quoted are tentative, because very few companies accept risk at all due to the approaching southwest monsoon, and if they do so they demand very high rates. In May, 1944 this process went up to ridiculous length when rates demanded by the insurers were about 20% for Malabar and 18% for Kathiawar. And actually some shippers paid the rates as an alternative to despatching their cargo uninsured. In the second half of May no risk is accepted at all for southern ports, though in very rare cases, a partial risk (that is, for small percentage of the total value of the cargo) is accepted by some companies at a prodigious rate of premium in case of ships going in northern direction from Bombay.

The averages given above should therefore be taken with this explanation. The average given for May is mainly based on the rates prevailing in May 1943.

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War Risk Rates :—These rates have been fairly uniform for the whole season. They are levied generally by Government in consultation with insurance companies. On the west coast the rate has been 1% for ports north of Cochin, and 2% for ports south of Cochin up to Colombo. These rates are uniform irrespective of the nature of cargo.

These basic rates as given above from Bombay and other ports would serve to indicate rates charged from other ports of shipment to other destinations depending on the particular voyage in the particular direction and the risks involved in such voyages.

Rates to the Arabian and Persian Gulf Ports, however, remain more or less uniform on a level round about 6%, because the Arabian ships usually arrive on the west coast in November when fair season begins, and they make two round trips from their home ports to the Indian coast during the fair season only. A round trip takes about three months and the Arabian ships are ready to leave for home ports in March or April while on their second trip. So the rate is usually uniform in their case, the only possibility of slightly higher rate being in the case of ships sailing very late in April from the Indian coast.

Although the rates as shown in the above table follow the general trend subject to the spells of bad weather, they should not be taken as exact rates charged by different insurance companies. Small variations are possible in the rates charged by them. Besides, there is also the variation as in the case of some cargo of a particular nature, such as tobacco, bidi leaves, chillies and such other kinds which are considered as light cargo, risk on which is accepted only for total loss and not for jettison. Other cargo such as salt, tiles and cocoanuts, the latter two of which are also carried loose, are similarly insured for total loss only. Hazardous goods like petrol, kerosene, acids, alcohol, phosphorus and the like are not accepted for insurance at all. And insurance companies may even deny responsibility for payment of claim in respect of the hull of a ship, if it is proved that the ship was carrying such hazardous goods at the time of its sinking. This may be so even if the cause of sinking may not be the presence of hazardous goods on board the ship. Similarly, insurance companies that have accepted risk on cargo in a ship which may have also carried such hazardous goods may likewise deny their responsibility for other cargo insured by them. In fact these exceptions are made in the policy covering risk on hull. These variations and exceptions should be carefully noted by the shippers of cargo and owners of ships, so that they would know the exact position and a lot of unnecessary discussion on these points would be avoided.

A few other points in this connection may be usefully mentioned in the matter of risk covered. These are : (1) In the case of insurance on hull there is no refund of premium granted if a ship is laid up for a certain period. This is not so in the steamship insurance, where such refunds are granted when steamers are laid up and the owner applies for refund. (2) Beaching and|or "Running aground" in port is often not covered by Hull Insurance Policy. So a Constructive Total Loss, if resulting therefrom, is not covered by the Hull Insurance Policy. However, this is a debatable point. (3) Risk on cargo terminates the moment the same is landed at any port even in the course of unloading the cargo to enable the ship to carry out repairs, or even in the case of transhipment of cargo from one ship to another directly at sea or by landing on shore and transhipping same to another ship.

Recently, however, there is a tendency amongst the insurance companies to consider such matters leniently and to charge a flat rate also for the whole season for any particular cargo to be carried on the coast, usually for short distances. For instance, the rate charged to the Bombay Government during the last season (1943) for rice, bajri and other grain cargo shipped from Bombay to Konkan ports up to Vengurla from Bombay was 1% throughout the season for all the ports beginning from Bankote and ending at Vengurla. Similarly uniform rates

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were charged for the whole season for Standard Cloth during 1943-44 season. In the same way, rates charged for several other Government goods are fairly uniform from one port to another. It may therefore be possible to fix flat rates from all the ports on the west coast for the same kind of cargo throughout the season.

It is fortunate that this tendency is growing which might ultimately achieve a sort of uniformity of rates. And if the sailing vessels traffic remains a normal feature even in peace times, we are confident that the insurance companies also will not lag behind in coming to the assistance of the traffic by establishing uniformity of rates and uniformity of working. At present they have to work under several handicaps; and as will be mentioned hereafter in the chapter under "Future of the Sailing Vessel", the formation of an Association of Insurance Companies, interested in the sailing vessel traffic, classification of ships after periodical surveys, improvement in the literacy and morals of the crew, better salvage facilities, strengthening of coast patrols to prevent "false" jettisons, and better Government control and guidance will definitely encourage insurance companies to lay down definite and progressive policy in the matter of sailing ships insurance as it exists in the case of steamships insurance.

We shall lay down our conclusions regarding this aspect in the final chapter.

CHAPTER XIII.

BANKING.

We may now consider the role of banking in the sailing vessel traffic.

Although the banking facilities in respect of cargo shipped per sailing vessels nave always been distinctly meagre, banking system in relation to same has been developed in India to a much greater degree in the past than insurance. And yet our ancestors had by no means any easy time in this respect.

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At a time when ships, lives, cargo and other property at sea were subject to great piratical and atmospheric dangers, especially when traversing unfrequented seas, our ancestors braved all these dangers from Nature and man and carried on their pioneering work in the face of such dangers. Our admiration and gratefulness to them for the signal service rendered by them to the country in taking their uninsured ships and valuable cargo unsupported by banks to distant lands after fighting such dangers, and for bringing back foreign goods in exchange under similar conditions, have only be matched by their unbounded courage in scouring the broad expanse of the seven seas with valuable goods in their charge. It is natural therefore that when even under such difficult circumstances, they developed a banking system suited to those peculiar times, we must not in the least falter in our admiration for them for establishing those forms and formalities in those days in the banking line, however limited and crude they may appear to us in these days. They had to fight several obstacles, and it was only after taking note of those circumstances that our forefathers could adopt systems and methods in the banking business as suited to the time in which they were moving.

It is only in front of such background that we have to view the development of banking as it related to the sailing ship traffic.

But the main reasons preventing any rapid growth of banking relating to this traffic were connected with the very nature of the traffic itself. In the past most of the merchants accompanied their cargo on the ship to nearby home or foreign ports, sold their cargo there, purchased and brought back home such fresh goods as were produced in those places and as could be easily sold in their home towns. In this process very often barter was the rule rather than exception, money hardly entering into the transactions. So much weight of produce or articles, or so much length of cloth or other materials, or so many of this or that product were exchanged for so much of any other

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that others could offer. And even though monetary standards of their respective countries might have entered into the mental calculation of the value of goods exchanged, actually no money in coins passed in the transactions. Thus, so far as the question of foreign trade was concerned, the ancients circumvented the intricacies and instability of foreign exchanges by adopting the barter system and eliminated banking transactions at the root. No merchants who shipped cargo to foreign ports brought back money alone. They usually brought back goods in exchange. It was only when the goods were ordered by a foreign merchant that the latter paid cash to an agent of the shipper at destination or paid same by a Hundi (Draft) payable to the seller at his place through a shroff or a merchant interested in banking or insurance business.

Another reason was the dearth of purely banking houses with branches and agencies at numerous places as we find in these days. Banking business in those days was more or less carried on by large merchants only whose main business was trade rather than banking. Some others who were big landlords having property, fields and similar possessions with large incomes, often utilized their money for a sort of banking business at their convenience. A third class was that of private insurers who often advanced money to the shippers for payment of the cargo shipped by them. Such people would be approached by sellers and|or shippers of goods who may have no agents at the buyer's or consignee's place for recovering their money from the buyer. Whenever a seller and|or a shipper had his own constituents or agent at the place of the consignee, the former would draw a Hundi directly on the latter asking the drawee to pay the amount of the Hundi to the drawer's agent or constituent at that place. But when the shipper had no such convenience, he would request any one of the three classes of financiers mentioned above and request them to issue him a Hundi payable to the financier's agent by the consignee. The financier would, when the Hundi is honoured and the in-

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timation to that effect is received by him, would pay the money to the seller or shipper of goods. He recovers his commission and interest if any from the buyer or the consignee. In this case, the transaction takes the form merely of a Bill for Collection (B. C.) or a Bill of Exchange (Demand Draft) in the modern banking. Usually, the financier does not advance money to the shipper against his documents, but only pays him when the Hundi is honoured by the consignee. This Hundi is often a "Sight" 'Hundi' payable at sight with usual three days of grace and is possible only when the buyer is known to the seller. In other case, the seller would have received at least a part of the amount from the buyer in advance, and the Hundi would then be drawn by the seller for only the balance of the amount. Similarly if an importer has to obtain goods from abroad, he would pay the seller of goods by buying a Hundi at his own (buyer's) place and payable to the seller at his place, or by resuesting the seller to draw a Hundi on him.

But the process was lengthy and often very few merchants could be found who were in a position to issue Hundis and had their own constituents or agents at destination. This stultified rapid development of banking in sailing vessel traffic in the past, despite the fact that the Hundis of some Indian merchants could be honoured in such distant places as in Arabia, Egypt, Africa, Zanzibar in the west, and in various places in the east.

And yet another reason for the limited growth of banking was that in many cases trade between any two merchants, whether indigenous or foreign, known to each other, was carried on by book entries on both sides. Actual money hardly passed between them. Value of the goods despatched was debited to the account in question, and credited for goods received. Accounts were then adjusted at the end of the year, say, a few days before the Diwali Day, and balance in favour of any of the two parties was paid by a Hundi. This being the case, the necessity of proceeding through a banker was reduced to a minimum.

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Added to this, there was the standing doubt about the safety of the ship at sea and its safe arrival at destination owing to the perils of the voyage. This made it difficult for the shippers of cargo to obtain Hundis issued on their constituents. Both the financiers and the shippers had the fear whether the Hundis when issued would be paid by the drawee if the ship in which the goods were shipped was lost or the cargo jettisoned or otherwise jeopardised, damaged or pilfered. If fortunately the cargo was insured, then such drawee would not have much hesitation in honouring the Hundi. But in other circumstances, the shipper of cargo had always this suspicion about honouring the Hundi by the consignee, and the financier had still greater fear if he had by any chance advanced to the seller the amount of the Hundi. In such conditions, financiers hardly discounted the bills of the sellers. The difficulty of cash remittances either by sea or land routes owing to insecurity of life and property in transit, was another stumbling block preventing any extensive use of banking facilities in this traffic. Consequently main emphasis was laid on Hundis or book entries.

In the circumstances, therefore, only limited development could be made in the banking line so far as it related to the sailing ship traffic. There had been risks and difficulties connected with it which in normal conditions do not affect steamship traffic. Consequently, the trade maintained by sailing ships could not get the needed banking support and encouragement that one would have expected. Banking transactions therefore were very limited in number and scope, and it was only under certain conditions that Hundis were drawn for payment of goods purchased by consignees.

The procedure contained in this case was that the purchaser of goods abroad or at any indigenous coast port would inform the seller to draw a Hundi on him through such and such firm or merchant, payable by the purchaser to the firm or merchant's agent at destination. The purchaser usually honoured the Hundi. The agent of the firm

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or merchant would then intimate to his principal about the recovery of the money from the drawee and the transaction would be closed as between the principal and the agent merely by book entries. On the intimation being received by the principal from his agent, the latter would pay the money to the seller. The agent recovers the commission from the drawee. The rate of commission has usually been between 2% and 3⅛%. Only some financiers would charge even up to 6¼%.

In case the Hundi is dishonoured by the purchaser for one reason or another, the seller would then request the firm or merchant to take delivery of the goods, sell them at the best possible prices and remit the proceeds to him after deducting the commission on the sale of the goods and remittance.

The second method of financing was the advances made by private insurers to the sellers of goods.

In this process, the insurers—who by the bye were very few in number as the "insurance habit" had not yet developed to any large extent and very few insurers were in the field to accept insurance at all as we have seen in the preceding chapter—would be approached by the purchaser to insure his goods and to pay about 75% to 80% of the amount of the insured value to the shipper of his goods. Often this amount covered the full value of the goods and incidental expenses of shipment. The balance of 20% to 25% represented other expenses such as insurance premium, advances to the captain and the crew, and other incidental expenses. The insurer would then draw a Hundi on the purchaser payable to the former's agent at destination for the full value more or less equivalent to the total amount of the policy, adding thereto his commission for the banking part of the transaction and the amount of interest on the sum advanced. And the particular transaction is then completed when the purchaser has honoured the insurer's Hundi. Often the insurer would also insist for part or full value of the goods to be remitted to him by the buyer if the latter is not known to

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him. But this system is of recent origin, not longer than about 200 years, and did not exist in ancient times as insurance itself had not then existed. In ancient times, Hundis and book entries were therefore more common.

It will thus be seen that in essence the financing of this business as far as it went and the methods followed therein were not much different from those that are in current usage in the banking line to-day. The "Hundi" is only another Indian word for "Draft" of to-day. Usually these Hundis were "Sight Drafts" payable within three days of presentation. We have not so far known of any long-term Hundis like the D|P or D|A Drafts for one to four months which are in vogue in the present-day banking. Excepting for this difference the "Hundi" is only the "Draft" of to-day almost in all its essential features. And the insurer advancing money to the purchaser assumed the position of the banker of to-day discounting the seller's bills. However, as stated by us before, purely banking houses had not in the past made rapid development as to-day although the "Shroffs" formed an important agency in the line. Most of this banking business was carried on by large merchants or landlords having plenty of surplus money, as we have seen before. But the institution of shroffs who engaged themselves purely in finance without actually being traders, merchants or landlords, was gradually coming into existence side by side with such merchants or landlords. And these shroffs laid the foundation of Indian banking. In these days, however, the word "shroff" has become synonymous with only "collector" of money.

It follows therefore that even though the banking transactions were limited in scope and extent, and although they had not had the exact features of the forms and formalities of to-day, the traffic by sailing vessels was supported though to a limited extent by the gradually-developing banking methods which could be taken in some sense as precursors of the present-day usages in the line. This development was consistent with the limited scope for operation and the great risks that were attendant on the traffic in the past. Nevertheless the tendency was towards modernisation consistent with safety of travel and security of life and property, and to that extent the traffic was gradually benefitted.

This system practically persisted in this traffic even up to time of the present World War, and the Indian merchants still extensively use the system of drawing their own private Hundi or of Hundis issued by large merchants in their favour. But during this War, the sailing vessel traffic is being patronised by an increasing number of people, modern methods are being adopted and therefore modern banking houses have gradually started to assist the traffic.

Thus, the banks now discount shipper's bills if supported by insurance Policy. In some cases, the modern bankers advance even full amount usually on the strength of the shipper's credit. Often the banks have knowledge of the credit of the consignee and this fact is also taken into account. The modern banks have thus come into the field to finance the traffic though in a limited way.

However, there are still several limitations and handicaps which it will take a long time to surmount. For instance, at present only a limited number of banks engage themselves in this business. And even when they accept to discount bills, they insist on sevenal formalities to be fulfilled. The first stipulation is that the insurance policy in respect of the shipment must be issued by a First Class Insurance Company acceptable to the bank. Often the buyer stipulates the name of the insurance company and the banker has to see that the policy is issued by the very same company. But if the banker is asked to discount the seller's bills, the banker may still have his say in the matter of the choice of the insurance company issuing the policy. Another point taken into consideration by the banker would be the credit of both the seller and the purchaser. This credit must be beyond doubt. In this respect banks do not leave any room for doubt in these days, because they hardly discount the bills unless the consignee has opened a Letter of Credit in favour of the seller through a bank. And often this Letter of Credit has to be an "Irrevocable" and "Without Recourse". For a Letter of Credit of the latter nature, the consignee has practically to pay full 100% of the value of the goods. This entails a great burden on the consignee, but leaves the bank free from any liability in the matter. The banker's hesitation in freely advancing money on an ordinary Letter of Credit, with or without documents attached to it, arises because of the risky nature of the sailing vessel traffic, the possibility of abnormal delay for the cargo to reach its destination, the limited scope of the risks covered by the insurance policy extending only over total loss or jettison of the cargo in question, the uncertainty as to seaworthiness of ships in charge of the illiterate crew, and various other risks to which sailing ships are exposed in the course of their journey but which are not covered by the relative insurance policy. These act as deterrents on the traffic, and only a gradual development of the traffic in an organized manner will slowly remove this hesitation on the part of the bankers to a certain extent. Full banking facilities as are given for shipments per steamships will never be given by bankers. But a partial assistance on an increasing scale is possible.

Modern Procedure.

In these days, banks therefore take the following points into consideration before they discount bills or otherwise finance shipments per sailing ships :—

1. Credit of the shipper.
2. Credit of the consignee.
3. The ship by which the cargo is shipped and the owners or agents thereof.
4. Bill of Lading and Invoice.
5. Letter of Credit.
6. Insurance Policy in respect of cargo and the Insurance Company by which it is issued.

7. Hypothecation of the Documents covering title to goods shipped, wherein the shipper surrenders his absolute rights in the goods in favour of the banker.
8. Insurance on the Hull of the ship, that is to say, whether the hull of the ship is insured or not.
9. Port for which the ship has sailed, whether it is an indigenous or a foreign port.

In the present war times, several other requirements have to be complied with in respect of such shipments, such as :—

1. Permit from Exchange Control Office.
2. Permit for the export of goods.
3. Permit for the import of goods.
4. A guarantee bond signed by the shipper on a stamp paper of Rs. 15 to the effect that the goods will be consumed at the port of destination or the place of the consignee or ultimate purchaser as mentioned in the bill, and that they will not in any way reach any enemy country directly or indirectly from the port of destination.
5. Permit for the quota for shipment.
6. Certificate of origin of the goods.

The bankers may ask for proofs for any one of these. Permit from Exchange Control Office must necessarily accompany documents.

These formalities have to be fulfilled both for export to or import from indigenous or foreign ports, excepting that the question of exchange does not arise in the case of home trade. Every shipper of cargo has to satisfy as to these general conditions (from 1 to 9 in the first group) and special wartime conditions (from 1 to 6 in the second group) before he can complete his shipment and obtain money by discounting his bills with any bank for the shipment made by him.

It is therefore clear from the foregoing statements that although in the past banking business was developed in respect of sailing vessel traffic in a limited manner com-

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mensurate with the conditions then existing, it did provide the essence of banking of to-day. The indigenous banking organization of the past met to some extent the needs of the time, but for which even the modern banking houses would not have thought fit to enter the field. If it was not for the foundation laid by our shroffs, merchants and landlords, our banks of to-day would not have cared to finance the export and import of goods by sailing vessels in these days. It is true that even in the present time, the distant purchaser of goods often remits to the seller the full amount covering the value of the goods, and then the former has simply to ship the goods to the buyer. But even here, the buyer remits the money by a Draft through a bank and not by Post Office. And usually the purchaser prefers to send the full amount through the bank rather than sending it directly to the seller, because the bank can then, acting as an agent of the purchaser, exercise various checks on the shipment. For instance, the bank can ascentain whether the insurance policy is acceptable, whether the quality of goods shipped is up to the standard as mentioned in the invoice, whether the party shipping the goods is a reliable one, whether the price charged is appropriate, and so on. The distant purchaser therefore gets the benefit of several safeguards in proceeding through a bank instead of dealing directly with the seller. He therefore prefers to deal through a bank rather than remitting the amount to the seller directly.

Banking system of the modern type has thus been gradually taking root in the sailing vessel traffic. Further development is possible with the establishment of traffic on a sounder and firmer basis. Towards this end our efforts must be directed.

CHAPTER XIV.

CLAIMS.

Shipping does not provide a more knotty problem than that of claims.

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At the very mention of "claim" against him, the shippower's heart shrinks within himself. And even when he has to make such a claim against the insurer of his vessels, he has the same fears whether his titles to the claim would be accepted or not.

The shippers and consignees of cargo, on the other hand, are equally perturbed at the prospect of making claims, because ordinarily no straightforward merchant wants to undergo the botheration of submitting claims. Merchants want their cargo to be delivered to them in good condition, and want to make money out of their cargo rather than out of claims from the shipping or insurance company. Unless therefore a shipper or a consignee has any evil intention of making cheap money out of false "claims", shippers or consignees usually do not wish to undergo the trouble of submitting claims to a shipping company or insurance company with problemmatical results.

The Insurance Companies likewise feel as if there is always a constant terror hanging over their heads and shudder at the very mention of "claim".

Thus, none of the units of the traffic are happy with the thougnt of "claims".

And yet claims form a part and parcel of business life everywhere. A lot of thinking and time is wasted on the matter. Often litigation is resorted to. And with all this, the returns that one actually gets are often hardly commensurate with the trouble, expense and the wasted time for obtaining payment of claims.

In the shipping line, claims arise in the following cases :—

I. Claims in respect of hull of a ship and its equipment, and

II. Claims in respect of cargo carried by ships.

But the claims payable in respect of the above items pertaining to sailing vessels are fewer than those that are payable in respect of steamships. Several risks pertaining to the sailing vessels are not accepted by insurance com-

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panies but which are considered common and acceptable in steamship traffic. We have considered this question fairly at length in the chapter on "Insurance". The risk accepted by the insurance companies being thus limited, most of the burden of the risk attaching to hull and cargo of sailing ships has to be borne by the owners of the ship and shippers of cargo respectively. The shipowner is mostly free from the responsibility in respect of cargo and only in the case of thefts or pilferage of cargo, he may be asked to compensate the cargo-owner. We shall now consider these aspects in detail under the above two headings.

I Claims in respect of Hull.

As we have seen in the preceding chapter, claims payable in respect of hull are limited to:

1. Absolute Total Loss, or Total Loss Only (T L O).
2. Constructive Total Loss (C T L).
3. Damage to parts (payable only on certain occasions and at the discretion of the insurer).

Thus, the insurer would pay claims only in the case of total loss or constructive total loss. That is to say only the F. P. A. basis is accepted in this respect. No W.P.A. Policies are issued to cover any other risks. For instance, risks concerning such parts as rudder, masts, ropes, sails, anchors are specifically excluded from such policies, and generally no claims are paid in respect of damage or partial loss to the hull if the amount of claim is less than 5% of the entire value of the ship. Only on occasions an insurer may make some ex-gratia payment to the assured at his own discretion just to keep the goodwill of his client. But the assured cannot compel the insurer to pay claims for the damage or loss to these.

Several other risks are not covered by a Policy issued on the hull of a sailing vessel, and no claims in respect of them can be obtained on the basis of the Hull Policy. Some of these losses which are not covered by such a Policy are those relating to:—

1. Plying in creeks, canals or shallow waters.

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2. Insufficient or excessive loading of the vessel.
3. Particular average claim under 5% of the entire value.
4. Rebellion, insurrection and usurped power.
5. Enemy action, seizure, capture, arrest, restraint or detainment and consequences arising therefrom and all consequences of hostilities. (These risks are generally covered by a separate policy called "War Risk" Policy).
6. Ordinary wear and tear.
7. Riots, civil commotion, lock-outs, evilly-disposed persons.
8. Vessels engaged in contraband trade, and consequent seizure by any Government authority.
9. Mischievous behaviour and|or unlawful conduct of the tindel or the crew.
10. Vessel engaged in passenger traffic or live-stock.
11. Grounding or stranding in canals, creeks, harbours and tidal rivers.

In the matter of "grounding" or "stranding" the insurer's responsibility ceases as soon as a ship has run aground or stranded. However, the liability for the total loss or constructive total loss caused by grounding or stranding otherwise than by grounding or stranding as mentioned in clause 11 above, has to be accepted by the insurer.

It will thus be seen that even the restricted F. P. A. basis is hedged in by several other conditions applicable before payment even for total loss or constructive total loss is made. For instance, if a ship runs aground in creeks or shallow water, the claim is not payable. This is very hard on the shipowner, because the very nature of the sailing vessel traffic is that they have very often to ply in shallow waters, tidal rivers, canals and creeks. Risks no doubt are great; but the sailing vessels perhaps may not be able to trade if they are restricted to enter creeks, shallow waters, tidal rivers and canals. Because of such reservations and limitations, it is very difficult for the assured to secure

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payment of claims except in case of total loss (T.L.) or constructive total loss (C.T.L.) at sea outside of the harbours, creeks, canals or tidal rivers.

Thus, such Hull Policies allow claims only for T.L. or C.T.L. resulting from :—

1. Perils of the sea including fire, act of God, pirates, rovers, assailing thieves, and all other perils of the sea that damage the ship.
2. Accidents in loading and handling of cargo.
3. Explosions on board the vessel or elsewhere.
4. Breakage of shafts or from any latent defects in the hull. But any latent defect or fault or error in design or construction is not included in the expression "latent defects" under this heading.

All these claims are payable by the insurer provided the damage or loss has not resulted from negligence on the part of the owners of the vessel or any of their managers, tindel or the crew. But claims in respect of these would require such overwhelming proof that every item at every stage will have to be proved from record and other evidence.

Thus in a nutshell, the Hull Policy in respect of a sailing ship provides the only benefit of covering a loss of the ship at sea purely and simply due to the perils of the sea and act of God. All other risks have to be borne by the owner himself.

II. Claims in respect of Cargo.

Coming on to the subject of claims in respect of cargo shipped per sailing vessels almost the same limitations persist.

Here also the cargo is covered for total loss due to the total loss of the ship, to which should be added the risk of jettison. And claims are paid by insurance company practically in respect of losses caused by these two risks only. But "sling loss" is covered and claim is admitted for same. No other claims are admitted nor are any usually submitted.

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But even in these cases, there are several exceptions such as, hazardous goods, goods stowed on deck of vessels having decks, and dangerous drugs which are not covered. The last one is sometimes accepted under severe restrictions. The net effect of these restrictions and reservations is that the only claims against which shippers of cargo can secure payment are those for total loss of the cargo carried by a ship which has itself become a total loss or a constructive total loss, and for jettisoning of the whole or part of the cargo when owing to stress of weather such jettisoning becomes necessary for the safety of the ship and rest of the cargo. These claims are paid by insurance companies. No other claims are entertained or paid by them or by the shipowners. The shipper has to bear most of such other losses. Only in the case of pilferage, shipowners may be asked by the consignees or shippers to make good the loss. Of course the shipowner's liability is limited by the Carriage of Goods by Sea Act and terms of the Bill of Lading issued by him. Seaworthiness of his ship is not implied in any contract for the carriage of goods by sea, although the shipowner is bound to take all due care and precautions to make his ship seaworthy before sailing. Claims for damage are not accepted either by insurance company as it is a F.P.A. claims, or by the shipowner. The shipper himself has to accept responsibility in this respect.

Besides this most of the exceptions made in the case of Hull Policy are applicable to a Policy issued to cover risk on cargo carried by sailing vessels.

How the claims are to be submitted.

Each claim pertaining to the hull of a sailing ship or cargo carried by it should be accompanied by some stated documents while submitting same to the insurance company.

These documents are :—

I. Documents in respect of claim pertaining to Hull.

(1) Certified copy of the Tindel's Note of Protest or Declaration made before a Notary Public,

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a Magistrate or any Customs or Port Authority nearest to the scene of the accident.

(2) Survey Report assessing the amount of the damage or loss if the ship is insured against such loss or damage.

(3) Bill of the assured for the amount.

(4) Original Stamped Policy.

(5) A letter covering these documents addressed to the insurance company and asking for payment of the claim.

II. Documents in respect of claim pertaining to the cargo carried by sailing ships are :—

(1) Certified Copy of the Tindel's Note of Protest or Declaration made before a Notary Public, a Magistrate, or any Customs or Port Authority nearest to the scene of accident when total loss or constructive total loss has resulted or jettisoning has been necessitated.

(2) Original Stamped Policy covering the risk on the cargo insured.

(3) Survey Report in the case of any leakage or pilferage, if insurable and if actually insured.

(4) "Sling loss" certificate issued by any competent authority.

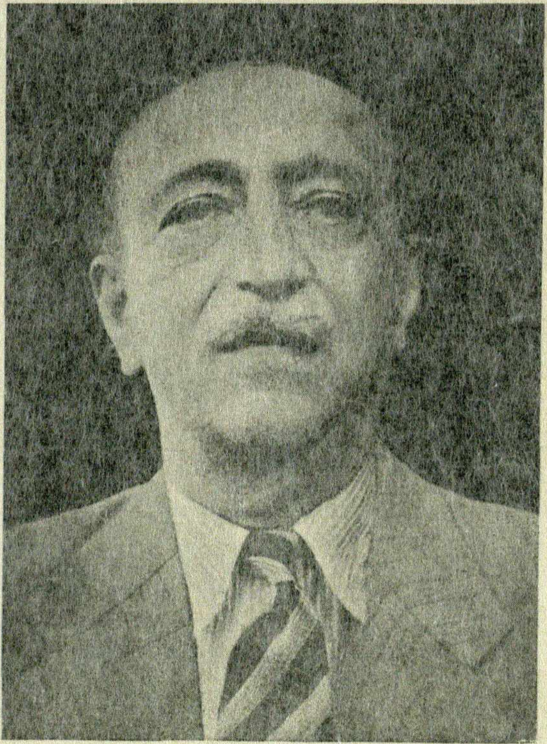
(5) Invoice of the goods.

(6) Customs' Manifest showing date of the departure of the vessel and marks and numbers on all cargo.

(7) Customs' or Port Officer's Certificate showing outturn of cargo with marks, numbers, and consignor's name.

(8) A letter covering these documents and asking the insurance company to make payment against the claim.

These formalities will usually meet the situation. It is only in certain specialised contracts, more documents may be necessary. But usually those noted above will



Sir Cawasji Jehangir, Bart. M.A. (Cantab), K.C.I.E., O. B. E., M.L.A. (Central), is one of the descendants and present head of the illustrious family of Banajis and Readymoneys mentioned in this book.

suffice for the purpose.

In conclusion, it may be repeated what we said in the beginning that the claims in respect of sailing ships either payable by the insurance companies or shipowners are very few as compared with those payable in steamship traffic. The principle involved in accepting to pay these claims is that only those claims which arise from the entire loss of the ship or its cargo are entertained by the insurance companies. To put it the other way, only those claims which are free from particular average (F. P. A., that is, "Free from Particular Average") are entertained, and those that involve the average basis (W. P. A., that is, "With Particular Average") are not so entertained. In the latter case claims may be paid at the discretion of the insurer. Only other claims paid in respect of cargo are for cargo jettisoned due to stress of weather and cargo lost from sling. And so far as the shipowner is concerned, he pays no claims except for pilferage.

CHAPTER XV.

MAINTENANCE AND EARNINGS.

We shall now proceed to the consideration of the two important aspects of the traffic. (1) Maintenance and (2) Earnings.

The maintenance expenses of a sailing vessel cover both the period of active service and the period of laying-up during the monsoons.

As we have seen before, the shipping season varies to a certain extent in different parts of the coast. In Cutch and Katniawar, they count the season of 301 days, that is, ten months, leaving two idle months. On the Konkan and Malabar coast, they allow about four months for the monsoon with an active season practically of eight months. On the Gujerat coast a season of about nine months is allowed. Putting all these together, we may take for all practical purposes an active season of nine months and an idle period of three months.

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Let us now follow up our illustration of a 100-ton Cutch-Kathiawar type ship, the Kothia.

Such a ship will carry one tindel, and ten other members of the crew, one of them is often a carpenter and another a cook. In some cases there are 12 members of the crew. But on an average, ten members besides the tindel would be a fair basis.

We have seen how wages have risen due to the enormous rise in prices. Taking therefore the present scale of wages, we may calculate as below :—

		Rs.	as.	p.
(1)	1 Tindel at Rs. 100 (Rs. 70 as wages and Rs. 30 as allowance) per month, for nine months 900 0 0			
(2)	10 Members of the crew at Rs. 57-8-0 (Rs. 35 as wages and Rs. 22-8-0 as allowance per month) each; for 10 members Rs. 575 per month; for nine months 5,175 0 0			
(3)	Total wages, being the total of (1) and (2) above	6,075	0	0
(4)	Insurance on the hull: the cost of the ship of 100 tons is calculated by us at Rs. 35,500 : Insurance is taken on two-thirds of the value, that is, on about Rs. 23,700: The Insurable value is then Rs. 23,700. The rate of premium is about 6%	1,422	0	0
(5)	Bottom Paints and Repairs; three times bottom paints would cost Rs. 600 at the rate of Rs. 200 each time; (actually, it is Rs. 275 each time as seen before in Chapter III. But we may take only Rs. 200) plus average minor repairs for the season of about Rs. 200; thus Rs. 600 + Rs. 200	800	0	0

(6) Special Repairs and Bottom paints during the laying-up period ..	600	0	0
(7) Wages of one member of the crew kept as supervisor to watch the ship during the monsoons and get the repairs done and painted, at Rs. 57-8-0 per member per month i. e., for three months	172	8	0
(8) Other expenses during the laid-up period, such as rent and sundries	100	0	0
(9) Depreciation at 5% on the total value of Rs. 35,500 (assuming life of the ship at 20 years only) ..	1,775	0	0
Total Rs. ..	10,944	8	0

The expenses on maintenance of a 100-ton vessel including insurance and depreciation for the whole year would therefore be about Rs. 10,944 taking the maximum value of the ship. We have not however taken the overhead expenses into account at present. We shall consider them in the final analysis. But the above may be taken as the average and representative maintenance expenses in these days. Against this the charter hire obtained will be credited. The comparison of these expenses and the charter hire obtained will enable us to show the gross earnings or loss of the ship in the season.

The Sorley Committee calculated these figures as below :—

1. Interest on capital (Rs. 15,000) @ 3%	375	0	0
2. Insurance @ 6% on Rs. 15,000 (on two-thirds value taking the price as Rs. 15,000 for a 100 ton ship i.e., Rs. 10,000)	600	0	0
3. Remuneration to the tindel per season	250	0	0
4. Remuneration to the Khalasis per season	1,350	0	0

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5. Rations for the crew including tindel)	600	0	0
6. Painting the bottom three times per year	150	0	0
7. Dharmani Allowance and other expenses	250	0	0
8. Depreciation at 7½% (assuming life of ships of about 10 to 12 years) on Rs. 15,000	1,125	0	0
Total Rs. ..	4,700	0	0

We have left out in our above statement of expenses the amount of interest on the sum invested, because that is usually taken in the form of dividend or profit.

Thus the present expenses on maintenance amounting to Rs. 10,944 compare very unfavourably with the position in 1940-41 which the Sorley Committee must have taken as their basis for calculating their above figures of expenses. The shipowners have to pay about Rs. 6,244 or about 133% more on the maintenance of their ships at present than during 1940-41.

Besides these expenses, the shipowner before he calculates his profit has to bear several other expenses such as Port Dues, Customs Charges, and other expenses incidental to the trade, brokerage and the Agents' Commission, other overhead and sundry expenses. The Sorley Committee have assumed the Port and Customs charges at about Rs. 1300 per season.

We shall refer to this subject later when we calculate the approximate earnings of ships. The above figures are enough for the present for our subject of maintenance.

The above illustration however is for only one ship. But an owner having more such ships will save considerably in the overhead expenses.

Earnings.

After having calculated the expenses of maintaining a sailing ship, we shall now proceed to estimate the ap-

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proximate earnings of the owners.

The earnings of a sailing vessel would naturally form the most important part of our survey of the traffic by these ships.

But it is difficult to arrive at any definite figure of the earnings of a ship for the entire west coast for the simple reason that ships have often cargo in one particular direction only and have no cargo on the return voyage on the same route. The ships follow usually one particular route for their operation as we have seen before, and there are only a few types of ships that act as tramp ships on the entire coast. In the latter class are found only the Cutch-Kathiawar, Tuticorin and the Gujerat Ships. The other Indian ships on the west coast follow one particular route.

Let us, however, take the Bombay-Kathiawar Route with Bedi or Navlakhi as the terminus in Kathiawar and let us take again a Cutch-Kathiawar ship of 100-ton capacity for our illustration. This 100-ton ship should suffice for our purpose in the present circumstances, although the ideal tonnage of a ship in normal times for trading on the west coast should be between 60 and 75 tons. This Bombay-Kathiawar Route is one of the better-paying routes for sailing vessels even in normal times, as usually cargo is available both ways, and the time taken for a round voyage is also short. A round trip on this route can be performed in about 35 to 40 days in any part of the shipping season including days occupied in loading and unloading.

A ship of this type and capacity (100 tons) should make at the most about six round voyages per season after allowing for idle days in waiting for cargo and for days occupied in repairing, painting, etc. It would not be safe to take seven round trips into calculation, as in all probability no ship would make seven trips in a season.

Taking this basis of six round trips in one season, it would be seen that a ship of 100 tons capacity should carry during the season about 1200 tons of cargo in six round trips taking 100 tons each way. But we have to make allowance for some empty space which the ship must

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occasionally have to carry. An allowance of 20% per ship would be a fair one for this purpose. Thus the total tonnage of 1200 tons of cargo that a ship should carry in a season as seen above, would be reduced by 20% and would then come up to 960. Of this, let us allot half the quantity, that is, 480 tons to the Bombay-Kathiawar route, and the balance half, that is, 480 tons to the Kathiawar-Bombay route.

Then the rates of freight are not usually the same each way. From Bombay to Kathiawar, the rate is lower, as not much cargo is available at all times on this route even in the present circumstances when there is restriction on booking cargo by railways to Kathiawar. But there is usually more cargo available from Kathiawar to Bombay and the rate therefore is higher. The average rates for the season will be as below :—

Route :	Present average Rate Per ton	Prewar Rate per Ton
1. Bombay to Kathiawar (Bedi or Navlakhi)	Rs. 12 0 0	Rs. 6 0 0
2. Kathiawar (Bedi or Navlakhi) to Bombay	Rs. 14 8 0	Rs. 6 0 0

These are taken as charter rates charged by owners to charterers and are taken on average basis for the whole season (1944) and for various kinds of cargo. There are different rates for different types of cargo on weight or measurement basis, sometimes per package instead of per ton. Taking all these factors into consideration, the above average rates would be found as being fairly in conformity with actual conditions.

Therefore :

(1) 480 tons of cargo from Bombay to Kathiawar would be carried at Rs. 12 per ton and the total amount of freight for the season would be Rs. 5,760 0 0

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(2) 480 tons of cargo from Kathiawar to Bombay would be carried at Rs. 14-8 per ton, and the total amount of freight would be .. .. Rs.	6,960	0	0
Total Rs.	12,720	0	0

The total earnings of a 100-ton ship on this run therefore are Rs. 12,720-0-0. It may be taken as the maximum possible earnings for the ship on the route, assuming that the ship gets freight regularly throughout the season; but in practice, it is found that many ships remain idle in the beginning of the season since food-grains, salt, cotton, cotton seeds and such other commodities are ready for movement after January.

Let us now calculate the net earnings or loss by the ship, and for that purpose take into account all the expenses to be incurred on account of the ship. These are :—

1. Maintenance Expenses (as calculated earlier in this Chapter) .. Rs.	10,944	0	0
2. Port Dues, Customs and such other incidental expenses for the season Rs.	720	0	0
3. Brokerage at 6¼% on the earnings of Rs. 12,720 (on 960 tons of cargo) Rs.	795	0	0
4. Agency Commission at various places on Rs. 12,720 at 2½% .. .. Rs.	318	0	0
5. Sundries and Overheads at 10% on Rs. 12,720 .. .. Rs.	1,272	0	0
Total Expenses Rs.	14,049	0	0

This figure of expenses thus exceeds the figure of total earnings (Rs. 12,720) by Rs. 1,329-0-0.

Therefore from strict accounting point of view under which we have calculated the figure of Maintenance Expenses, the owner will be a loser by Rs. 1,329 in the whole season.

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But he would compensate for this loss by the following deductions :—

1. Insurance premium on the hull for which we have allowed 6% under "Maintenance Expenses" and totalling at	Rs. 1,422 0 0
2. And he makes no allowance for depreciation for which we have allowed under Maintenance Expenses and totalling at	Rs. 1,775 0 0
Total	Rs. 3,197 0 0

Thereby the owner would save actually by way of insurance premium Rs. 1,422-0-0 and theoretically Rs. 1,775 as depreciation at 5%, that is, the total amount of Rs. 3,197. Hardly 90% of the owners of sailing vessels were insuring their ships before the war. But many of them insure their ships in these days. If they do not do so this saving may be considered as their gain. And they also do not usually allow for depreciation. To a modern owner wishing to keep up with strict accounting, as we have shown above these allowances would be considered necessary. But orthodox owners may consider the above figure of Rs. 3,197-0-0 as an unnecessary expense. However if we do not take this as an expense, then the owner's loss of Rs. 1,329 per ship would be converted into a profit of Rs. 1868 for the season or about 5½% on Rs. 35,000 being the cost of the ships. And an owner having more than one ship, for example, ten ships for operation, would thus calculate his profit as below :—

1. Rs. 1868 per ship would come up for 10 ships to	Rs. 18,680 0 0

But from strict accounting point of view and with caution in the matter of insurance and provision for depreciation, he will be a loser to the extent of Rs. 13,290 on ten vessels. However, in such a case, his overhead expenses

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will be less per ship as some expenses will be distributed on all ten ships, and the actual figure of loss will be lower.

This would be the more or less approximate calculation for one of the most profitable of the routes on the west coast in these days. At present, though the expenses have gone up, the rates of freight have not gone up proportionately. The increased rates might appear as profitable; but actually the owner makes no profit in these days.

Now let us consider the position of a few other routes on the same basis, and let us take the longest route (about 950 to 1000 miles) between Karachi and Cochin.

2. **Karachi-Cochin Route:** This route would take about three and half months (105 days) for a round voyage. The passage from Karachi to Cochin will be closed from April and therefore a ship sailing from Karachi in the beginning of the season in November will make only two round trips on the route, and probably two short trips between Karachi and Kathiawar.

In two round trips on this route, the quantity of cargo carried would be about 400 tons less 20% as allowance for empty space as allowed above. That is, the net quantity of cargo carried will be 320 tons only on the route. To this may be added 400 tons of cargo on the Karachi-Kathiawar route less 20% allowance, that is, 320 tons net.

Now let us take the rates at which this cargo will be carried :—

	Average Rate per ton for 1942-43 & 1943-44 Seasons	Prewar Rate (average) per ton
Karachi-Cochin	Rs. 40*	Rs. 8
Cochin-Karachi	„ 35	„ 16
Karachi-Kathiawar (Bedi or Navlakhi)	„ 10	„ 5
Kathiawar-Karachi	„ 7	„ 2½

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* We have purposely taken this as the higher average rate for the whole of 1944 season, and it is higher than the average rates of 1942-43 and 1943-44 seasons as mentioned in chapter XI under "Rates."

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Thus the cargo of 320 tons on the Karachi-Cochin run will be carried as below :—

(1) 160 tons (half of 320 tons) from Karachi to Cochin will be carried at Rs. 40 per ton and the amount will be	Rs.	6,400 0 0
(2) 160 tons (the balance half of 320 tons) from Cochin to Karachi at Rs. 35 per ton	Rs.	5,600 0 0
(3) 160 tons of cargo from Karachi to to Kathiawar will be carried at Rs. 10 per ton, the amount will be ..	Rs.	1,600 0 0
(4) 160 tons of cargo from Kathiawar to Karachi will be carried at Rs. 7 per ton, the amount will be ..	Rs.	1,120 0 0
Total	Rs.	14,720 0 0

The total earnings on this route will then be only Rs. 14,720 which are about Rs. 2,000 more than the earnings on the Bombay-Kathiawar route. But this result which looks attractive is possible only if the ship fulfils the itinerary as stated above. Very probably it may not.

The total expenses on this route will be as below :—

1. Maintenance Expenses as above	Rs.	10,944 0 0
2. Port Dues, Customs and similar charges for the season ..	Rs.	720 0 0
3. Brokerage at 6¼% on Rs. 14,720	Rs.	920 0 0
3. Agency Commission at various places on Rs. 14,720 at 2½%	Rs.	368 0 0
5. Sundries and overhead at 10% on Rs. 14,720	Rs.	1,472 0 0
Total	Rs.	14,424 0 0

The total expenses come up to Rs. 14,424 as against the total earnings of Rs. 14,720 there being a difference of Rs. 296 as profit on the venture during the season. For ten ships, the profit will be only Rs. 2,960 or a little more due to the fact that the overheads will be distributed over ten ships. However it should be noted that even at the highest average rate of Rs. 40 per ton, there is only a meagre profit to the ship. In these days, the rates have to be still higher to be remunerative to the ship on this run, because the ships may not be able to regularly perform the itinerary as assumed above. They may have to wait longer for cargo or for repairs.

Taking further the general expenses on maintenance at Rs. 10,944 as calculated before and applicable to all routes on the west coast, we may mention below the earnings of a ship on the Bombay-Malabar route as below :—

3. Bombay-Malabar (Cochin) Route:

Four round trips, 800 tons of cargo less 20%—640 tons (that is 320 tons from Bombay to Cochin and 320 tons from Cochin to Bombay).

320 tons from Bombay to Cochin or Calicut at Rs. 11 per ton ..	Rs. 3,520 0 0
320 tons of cargo from Cochin or Calicut to Bombay at Rs. 25 per ton	Rs. 8,000 0 0
Total	Rs. 11,520 0 0

The total earnings will be Rs. 11,520 for the season on the route. But actually it may be even less, as the rate from Bombay to Cochin is oftentimes much less than that assumed above.

Against this the expenses will be as below :—

1. Maintenance Expenses (as above)	Rs. 10,944 0 0
2. Port and Customs dues	Rs. 720 0 0
3. Brokerage at 6¼% on Rs. 11,520	Rs. 720 0 0
4. Agency Commission on Rs. 11,520 at 2½%	Rs. 288 0 0
5. Sundries and Overhead at 10% on Rs. 11,520	Rs. 1,152 0 0
Total Expenses	Rs. 13,824 0 0

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The total earnings are about Rs. 11,520 while the expenses are about Rs. 13,824-0-0 showing a difference as loss of Rs. 2,304-0-0 on the venture for the season. This loss is as usual made up by the owners by saving on insurance and depreciation.

It will thus be seen that the total earnings on the three routes (including Karachi-Kathiawar) are Rs. 38,960 giving an average earning per ship per route of about Rs. 12,987 per season. And this result is possible at the present highest rates of freight in these days, provided the ship (100 tons capacity) is very lucky to secure good cargo regularly and keep on running without accidents and undue detention. As against this, the average expenses come up to about Rs. 14,099, leaving net average loss of Rs. 1,112. The earning as calculated by us is higher than that assumed by the Sorley Committee. The Committee calculated that each capacity (registered) ton of a sailing vessel carries about 7 tons of cargo during the whole season. Thus, a vessel of 100 tons would carry only about 700 tons of cargo during any season. But we have calculated on the three different routes including Karachi-Kathiawar route the following cargo that can be carried on each of the routes, during the season by a 100-ton vessel :—

1. Bombay-Kathiawar and vice versa, tons 960
2. Karachi-Cochin and vice versa, tons 320 } 720
   Karachi-Kathiawar and vice versa, tons 400 * }
3. Bombay-Malabar (Cochin) and vice versa,
   versa, tons 640

Total Tons 2,320

The total cargo carried on the three routes (Karachi-Kathiawar Route being included in Karachi-Cochin Route) is 2,320 tons thereby giving an average for the season of about 773 tons of cargo for a 100-ton vessel. This average is higher by 73 tons than that calculated by the Sorley Committee. The reason is obvious. There was not

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* Generally full cargo is available on this route both ways.

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enough cargo in those days (in 1941-1942 season) for the ships both ways so as to increase the volume of cargo carried by each ship. But since then more cargo is available both ways on some routes, and therefore our average is higher than that calculated by the Sorley Committee. And thus, while the average of 700 tons as arrived at by the Sorley Committee based on the 1941-42 position reflects the conditions then existing, our average of 773 tons based on 1942-1943 and 1943-1944 movements of cargo also reflects the conditions as obtaining in the subsequent period up to the present time. Our figures of the quantities of cargo carried by a 100-ton vessel on each of the routes are therefore neither unduly optimistic nor understated.

Similarly the average rate for the four routes will be as below :—

Route :	Rate per ton.	Average rate per ton for the route.
1. Bombay-Kathiawar	Rs. 12-0-0	Rs. 13-4-0
Kathiawar-Bombay	„ 14-8-0	
2. Karachi-Cochin	„ 40-0-0	„ 37-8-0
Cochin-Karachi	„ 35-0-0	
3. Karachi-Kathiawar	„ 10-0-0	„ 8-8-0
Kathiawar-Karachi	„ 7-0-0	
4. Bombay-Malabar	„ 11-0-0	„ 18-0-0
Malabar-Bombay	„ 25-0-0	
		Total Rs. 77-4-0

Total freight on the four routes for four tons is Rs. 77-4-0. So the average freight per ton is Rs. 19-5-0.

This is the highest possible average that the ships are likely to reach during the season. However, we believe that in actual practice, the ships will not be able to reach this average rate. It is more probable that the average rate for the ships for the entire west coast will be about

Rs. 16 per ton and perhaps highest up to Rs. 18, which may be taken as the basis of average rate for the west coast.

It may appear that our division of quantities of cargo carried on each of the above four routes in two equal parts is rather artificial. Thus, take for instance, 800 tons of cargo carried by a ship between Bombay and Kathiawar. We have divided it into two equal parts of 400 tons each way from Bombay to Kathiawar and from Kathiawar to Bombay. This division as well as that made in the case of cargo carried on other routes, may appear rather arbitrary and artificial. To a certain extent it may be so. We have assumed that in these days there would be sufficient cargo, and not necessarily full cargo, available each way. Therein we have made an allowance of 20% cargo less than full load. This should reflect more or less the actual situation and is sufficient to err on the safer side. It would not unnecessarily swell the figure of cargo carried nor will it give an exaggerated figure of owner's earnings. And since our average figure of 773 tons of cargo for a 100-ton ship for the season is not far higher than that independently calculated by the Sorley Committee by other methods it should be taken as a figure fairly representing the actual situation on the west coast of India in respect of cargo carried by a 100-ton vessel during the season.

We have said above that a ship of a tonnage capacity between 60 and 75 tons would be the most economical for traffic on the west coast, while we have taken as our illustration a 100-ton ship. The reasons as to why we take a ship from 60 to 75 tons as suitable and economical are that such a ship would not waste more time in loading and discharging, would not have to wait long time for cargo, would not require more men to man it, and would initially cost less for capital outlay. Of course it will earn less freight if we take its capacity into account. But the chances are that it will usually secure full cargo for one port because the sailing vessels usually load for one port only. A 100-ton ship would find it difficult to load full cargo for one port only, and if it does load, it will take a long time to do so. In doing this, the daily expenses during the "waiting" period would be mounting higher in the case of a 100-ton ship and the number of round trips would be reduced. The total earnings of a ship of 60 to 75 tons may, on the other hand, be higher with lower expense ratio. Such a ship would make more trips in the season. At the same time, we do not think that a ship of smaller capacity than 60 tons is suitable and econominal, as its total earnings for the season would be comparatively much smaller.

In concluding this subject we may state that the margin of profit for sailing vessels on the west coast is hardly perceptible owing to the high rise in the cost of living and the cost of materials. Ships are not assured of cargo both ways, and delays even in these days when more cargo is available cannot be avoided. The fact that the sailing vessels load cargo only for one port makes the position more difficult. But with the proper organisation of the traffic with systematic route arrangement, maximum possible use may be made of the sailing vessel tonnage available on the west coast with probably increased earnings for the owners.

CHAPTER XVI.

SAILING VESSELS Vs. STEAMSHIPS.

After having considered various aspects of the sailing vessel traffic, it would not be out of place to assess the value and utility of such ships in relation to steamships.

Thereby we do not mean to say that the sailing vessel will ever displace steamship. Nor are we comparing them as equals. To pit a sailing ship against a steamship will be like pitting a bullock cart against the Deccan Queen Express Train or the train pulled by the "Flying Scott". This is not what is intended to be done in this chapter.

Of course, the difference in speed between a sailing ship and a cargo steamship is not so great as between a bullock cart and a fast Express train. Given favourable

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weather a sailing vessel can attain a speed of 6 to 7 knots per hour, in some cases even more, while a cargo steamer usually does not exceed 9 knots and rarely over 11 to 12 knots per hour. A Clipper type of sailing ship could make even 15 knots per hour with favourable wind. In recent years, it is true that some countries have built cargo steamships with a speed of 18 to 20 knots as in Japan. But they have probably done so with an eye to their utility in war times when those very same cargo steamships can be converted into cruisers or raiders with slight alteration and addition of guns. Such ships can be excluded. Normally, however, cargo steamships average a speed of 9 knots, and even if they are built for higher speed exceeding 9 knots, the speed of 9 knots for a cargo steamer is considered economical. Steamers engaged in passenger traffic, of course, have much higher speed, normally between 17 to 20 knots; and such super liners like Queen Mary and Queen Elizabeth (British), Normandie (French), Bremen (German) and Rex (Italian) developed a maximum speed of about 35 knots per hour.

The speed of such super liners or their dimensions and carrying capacity are not taken into consideration here. At present we are concerned mainly with the cargo-carrying function of the sailing vessels, although they are used often for carrying passengers also. It is this aspect of the sailing ships that we shall refer here in relation to the steamships in general and particularly in relation to conditions prevailing on the west coast of India.

But any suggestion in the title that we are pitting the sailing vessel against the steamship as a rival or antagonist should be excluded. The title need not be interpreted in the sense that the sailing vessel is in any way a rival or opponent of steamship. It is used as a convenient expression to denote the contrast that exists between the two in the matter of their respective utility to trade and commerce of a country. Any other title to express this meaning would have been quite long without being so meaningful.

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Similarly, it would be almost imprudent to push the claims of sailing ships vaingloriously over those of steamships and to carry ourselves back into the sixteenth century. That is also not our object in this survey. Our only object is to compare the relative characteristics and possibilities of each one of them and their utility in respective spheres under the present circumstances. This will also lead us to the appropriate division of functions that may be allotted to each of them to secure the best possible benefits out of the present difficult situation without undermining the importance of either mode of transport.

As we have said before, the sailing ships have their own utility in these days as in normal times although their carrying capacity is small as are the expenses on their construction. They can ply in shallow waters where steamers can hardly call. They can utilize natural power. And for small cargoes to be carried over short distances—for one or two ports—or in creeks they have a distinct advantage and they are of great assistance to trade. Port and Customs formalities with regard to entering and clearing of sailing ships are very few and speedy. Regulations relating to the crew, their Register, the signing-on and signing-off of the crew and several other requirements in the case of sailing ships are practically negligible. No Log Books are considered necessary and none are maintained by sailing ship captains. The parts required for their repairs and other equipment are locally available except the compass. The only repairs required are to the hull and the mast, while in the case of steamships, there are repairs both to the hull and to the propelling machinery and engine. In the case of sailing vessels, cargo is stowed by the crew themselves, while stevedores are required to load and stow the cargo in the steamers. The rates of freight are also comparatively lower for cargo carried by sailing ships than those for cargo carried by steamers. Besides, sailing ships are more suitable than steamers for carrying cargoes like bricks, tiles, some types of timber,

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sand, lime, salt, cottonseeds and such other cargo.

As against these advantages there are the limitations and disadvantages of speed and limited cargo capacity of the sailing vessels. Weather becomes the principal factor in the case of sailing vessels, but it has no particular and important bearing on steamship movements in the same sense as it has on the sailing vessels. There are long delays in the cargo reaching the destination often involving larger risk of damage. The rates of insurance both for cargo and hull are comparatively higher in the case of sailing vessels, often three times more than those for the cargo carried in steamers. For two or three and sometimes even for four monsoon months the sailing ship traffic is practically at a standstill on the coast of India. There are practically no traffic regulations for sailing vessels as in the case of steamers and there is no loadline. Partial jettisoning of cargo is often heard in the case of cargo carried by sailing ships, whether the actual weather and other conditions warrant it or not. Often reports are heard about the unreliability of the crew and people go to the extent of charging them with pilferage under the garb of alleged jettison. One broker told the writer that some crew having free-booting tendencies prefer foodstuffs, cloth, and such other cargo to bricks, tiles, charcoal and timber, because such crew can help themselves out of the cargo mentioned in the first group, as it is both valuable and useful to them in these days of rationing and control. The latter group of cargo is bulky and not directly useful to them, and besides being not very valuable, it cannot be sold easily at outlying places. (Steps may, however, be taken to prevent such pilfering if it does exist to any great extent. Our own experience in this matter is rather contrary, and so far we have not had many complaints of any unwarranted jettison of cargo from our ships. On most occasions, cargo has safely reached its destination and delivered to consignees intact).

Further, the loss to the shipowners and to the trade by laying up the ships during the three monsoon months is

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great indeed. So much capital is idle; so much labour is idle, although when the crew come out to work at the commencement of the season, the wages fixed practically cover the whole year though actually paid for nine months. Thus while the labour is paid for the whole year, the capital remains in an unremunerative position and the production of wealth for the country as a whole is nil. The owners may compensate themselves for the loss of interest and profit by charging higher rates of freight in the fair season as the crew do for their wages, if the freight market is favourable. But on the whole, for the trade and the country in general, this is a loss, because so much capital is idle while labour is paid extra remuneration for the idle time without any production of wealth. There is no addition to the wealth of the nation and no other benefits accrue to the country as a whole. On the contrary, there is a distinct drain on the country's resources.

As against these, steamships can carry a large bulk of cargo including heavy packages and machinery at one stretch in a speedy manner. Weather does not matter to them as they sail even in monsoon weather and are useful to the trade at all times. There is no economic loss in their case as in the case of sailing ships during the monsoon laying-up. The steamship crew have their own organisations which may be sometimes irksome to the owners, but they are distinctly of help in raising the moral standard of the crew. The insurance rates are lower in the case of steamships than those in the case of sailing ships and the shippers get their cargo speedily and punctually. In the case of steamships almost certain calculations can be made as to the time taken for delivery of cargo at destination, as the steamers, barring bad weather on the voyage, usually run to scheduled timings. The shipper can know in advance when his cargo shipped from a port would reach its destination. And above all, the total cargo lifted by a few steamships would be much larger in volume than the total cargo shipped by all sailing vessels in the same period.

And yet even steamships have their own limitations.

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They cannot call at all the ports on the coast. They can do so only at important ports where large quantities of cargo are available. It will be, for instance, uneconomical for a large steamer of about 8,000 tons to call at a port for a cargo of 50 tons or so. The expenses involved on diversion, port charges, loading and lay days occupied in such loading, and on various other heads would leave no margin on the small cargo offered at a port. It may land the steamer actually into loss. And so a steamship master would prefer to carry empty space rather than call at a port for small cargo unless his steamer is very small. But small steamers are often uneconomical to run on long distances on the coast. Thus, though steamers can call at several ports if reasonable quantity of cargo is offered, the sailing ships owing to their small capacity fit in well where such small cargo is available for any one port. And what is more, if steamers are to be laid up for want of sufficient cargo, or if they have often to run with empty space, the expenses incurred and the losses suffered are also very high as compared to those suffered by sailing ships.

Thus, there are limitations and drawbacks on either side. And while not in the least minimising the superiority of steamships, a place may be found for sailing vessels in the economy of a country. They are useful not only in these war times when steamer tonnage and waggon supply are short, but even in peace times they are of value to the trade. For a small trader on the west coast who has not much cargo to offer to steamers or for a merchant at a port where it is not possible for a steamer to call, the value of sailing ships is great indeed. Unless the ultimate port of destination is far away, a merchant at a port where steamers do not call or railway connection is not near at hand, will not in the normal course, ship his cargo by sailing ship to a neighbouring port, which may be a port of call for steamers and there ship it by a steamer to be carried further to a third port which may not be far away from the original port of shipment. He would prefer that his cargo performs the whole journey up to such third port

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by a sailing ship. And for ports, where water levels are low and steamers cannot call, sailing vessels may remain the only means of transport. They can run inland on the rivers and carry the cargo to destination ports direct where steamers would often be unable to call. For instance, take a steamer of 6000 tons which is considered as an economical unit on the coast of India. Such a steamer of modern type would draw about 20 ft. of water when loaded. Obviously, she cannot call at ports where water levels are not above this draught. At many ports they have to anchor far away from the shore, sometimes even 5 or 6 miles from shore, and therefore heavy expenses have to be incurred on lighterage from steamers to shore. Often regular sailing vessels have to be used for such transportation instead of lighters. This involves very costly double transportation and sailing vessels might score on the steamers in such cases. The sailing vessels are also used as feeders for carrying cargo to the nearest port of call for steamers.

But, though during the war times the sailing vessels come more prominently to the view, the unassuming role that they play in normal times is not properly appreciated. Let us therefore make a few calculations for the west coast for normal times, assuming that there were only 4,500 sea-going sailing vessels instead of about 5,300 of such ships at present on the west coast of India, or instead of about 4,700 calculated by the Sorley Committee. The average tonnage as arrived at by the Sorley Committee is about 42 tons. In peace times, the average cost of constructing per registered or capacity ton of a sailing ship may be put at Rs. 120 instead of about Rs. 300 in these abnormal times. Further the total cargo carried by each sailing ship in a season as calculated by the Sorley Committee is at 294 tons (that is, for a 42-ton ship at 7 tons of cargo per capacity ton of the ship). Similarly the average number of crew including tindel on the sea-going sailing vessel of about 42 tons capacity would be safely put at 8, and the monthly payments for wages and allowance to the seven members of the crew would be Rs. 136-8-0 (at Rs. 19-8-0 per crew for

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wages and allowance), and Rs. 35 for the tindel (Rs. 20 as wages and Rs. 15 as allowance) with a total of Rs. 171-8-0 per month. It would equally be safe to assume Rs. 8 as the average rate of freight earned per ton for the whole season for the entire west coast in normal times.

Now let us make the relevant calculations for the west coast on the basis of above figures for normal times :—

I. Capital Involved :

i. The cost of constructing one sailing ship of 42 tons would be at the rate of Rs. 120 per ton .. .. .. Rs. 5,040

ii. In normal times there are about 4500 sailing ships on the west coast, the average capacity of each of which is calculated at 42 tons. Therefore the total capital involved in 4500 sailing ships at Rs. 5,040 each will be .. .. .. Rs. 22,680,000

II. Total Tonnage :

4500 sailing ships of 42 tons each average .. .. .. Tons 189,000

III. Wages Paid :

There are 4500 ships. Average monthly wages per ship are calculated at Rs. 171-8-0. So for nine months (for the season) the wages would be Rs. 1,543-8-0 ship. So for 4500 ships the wages paid at the rate of Rs. 1,543-8-0 per ship, for the season would be .. .. .. Rs. 6,945,750

IV. Tindels and Crew :

There are 4500 ships. Each has one tindel and on an average 7 crew including a cook. Therefore the 4500 ships have :

(a) Tindels	4,500
(b) Crew (about)	31,500
Total:	36,000

V. Cargo Carried :

Each sailing ship carries on an agerage in one season about 294 tons of cargo in normal times. Therefore 4500 ships would carry about .. .. Tons 1,323,000

VI. Freight Earned :

An approximate average rate of freight may be taken at Rs. 8 per ton. Therefore on 1,323,000 tons, the total freight earned would be .. .. .. Rs. 10,584,000

Let us now take the prseent position into consideration.

During war times, the figure of wages may be taken as doubled, and during 1944 they are about three times. The amount of cargo that may be carried during 1943-1944 season would also be more. The capital invested would be increased by the addition of about 800 more ships since 1941 and also because of the higher rate of construction. We must also allow about 30% as rise in the value of the older but existing sailing ships. The rates of freight are about 110 per cent more on an average for the whole coast for the entire season. And the number of crew and the tindels will be increased proportionate to the addition of 800 ships. The relative figures for 1943-44 season should therefore be something like these :—

I. Capital Involved :

(1) 4500 ships are valued above at Rs. 22,680,000. Their value has gone up by about 30% after allowing for depreciation. So, the appreciated value is Rs. 29,484,000

(2) Addition of 800 ships of average of about 42 tons each, giving a total tonnage of 33,600 tons, at the war time cost of an average of Rs. 300 per ton. Therefore, the total cost of 800 ships of a total tonnage of 33,600 tons would be (at the rate of Rs. 300 per registered ton) .. Rs. 10,080,000

Total : Rs. 39,564,000

II. Total Tonnage:

4500+800=5300 ships of average of 42 tons each .. .. .. Tons. 222,600

III. Wages Paid:

There are at present 5300 ships. The wages are nearly three times higher and allowance about two times higher. But it would be safe to take an average of three times of both these at present. Prewar wage bill per month for a ship is taken above at Rs. 171-8-0 for a 42-ton ship. We can safely put it at Rs. 514-8-0 per month in these war times, that is about three times the prewar monthly bill. Therefore for a season of nine months, the total wages and allowance bill will be Rs. 4630-8-0 per ship of 42 tons capacity. Therefore 5,300 ships: 5300 x 4630-8-0 .. .. Rs. 24,541,650

IV. Tindels and Crew:

Tindels for 5300 ships, one for each ship	5,300
Crew on an average of 7 for each ship for 5300 ships	37,100
	42,400

V. Cargo Carried:

The cargo carrying average in 1943-44 season will be higher than that of 294 per season as calculated by Sorley Committee for the normal times on the basis of 7 tons of cargo per capacity ton of a ship. The average capacity is taken at about 42 tons per ship. So 42 capacity tons x 7 Cargo tons=294 cargo tons. But in these days not much empty space or running in ballast is possible, as most of the ships are put to their maximum capacity. So we can increase the average per season to about 8 tons of cargo for each capacity ton giving for a ship of an average capacity of about 42 tons, 336 tons of cargo (42x8) as the average cargo carried by each ship during the season. (In Chapter XV we have arrived at an average of 773 tons for a 100-ton ship. That is about 7.73 tons per capacity ton. We can therefore take a round figure of about 8 tons per registered or capacity ton instead of 7 tons as assumed by the Sorley Committee). So, for 4500 ships which may be actually running during the season out of the total number of 5300 ships carrying about 336 tons of cargo per ship for the whole season, the total tonnage that may be carried will be about: 4500x336..Tons 1,512,000

We have taken here only 4500 ships for for our calculation of cargo carried in the present season, as only about so many ships are expected to be actually plying during the season on an average. Others may be temporarily laid up. Wages and other expenses, however, will continue to run all the same on 5300 ships although all of them will not be available for carrying cargo. So we have allowed for full wages and expenses on 5300 ships while we have taken 4500 ships for actually carrying cargo. (Similar deduction may be made in the case of ships running in normal times. And instead of 4500 taken there for our calculation, about 15% ships may be taken less for the purposes of calculating cargo carried in normal times').

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The authors of the Sorley Committee Report have assumed that during 1943-44 about 800,000 tons of cargo will be carried more than that carried in 1941-42 season, that is, 1,400,000 tons, which season was the basis of the Report. Thus in 1943-44 season, about 2,200,000 tons of cargo should be carried by the sailing ships on the west coast according to them. However, we do not believe that this figure will be reached and about 1,512,000 would be the more approximate figure of the cargo that may be moved in 1943-44 season by the sailing vessels on the west coast.

VI. Freight Earned :

Total cargo that may be carried this season (1943-44) will be about 1,512,000 tons. The average rates of freight for a round trip have not gone up higher than about 110%. The prewar rate is taken at Rs. 8 per ton on an average for the season. We may therefore, take Rs. 18 as the maximum average rate of freight for 1943-44 season. This should be a fair rate for the whole coast for the whole season. (We have seen in Chapter XV under "Maintenance and Earnings" that the maximum average rate for the four routes is Rs. 19-5-0. But for the whole coast, the average rate of Rs. 18 would meet the situation, although we have suggested Rs. 16 as the lowest minimum). Therefore, for a total cargo of 1,512,000 tons to be carried by sailing ships at the maximum average rate of Rs. 18 per ton, the total freight earned would be :—

1,512,000 x 18 .. .. ..=Rs. **27,216,000**

The figures of freight earned and wages paid during 1943-44 season will then be about as shown below :—

(1) Freight for the season	Rs.	27,216,000
(2) Wages for the season	„	24,541,650
Difference :	Rs.	2,674,350

This difference of Rs. 2,674,350 is very small for the shipowners as they have to meet a lot of other expenses, such as Port and Customs charges, lime-washing, painting and repairs, agency commission, and brokerage, overheads, insurance, depreciation and sundries before they can arrive at their figure of profit. These other expenses, besides wages, are put by the Sorley Committee at about Rs. 2000 per ship for the season for a 100-ton ship. But they would be higher these days. We may put them very moderately at Rs. 2000 on an average for a ship of 42 tons including insurance on the ship, in view of the fact that we have put these other charges at Rs. 4869 for a 100-ton ship in Chapter XV under "Maintenance and Earnings" (that is, the total expenses besides overheads are calculated at Rs. 10,944 on page 163. After deducting therefrom the amount of wages, Rs. 6,075, we get the amount of other expenses as Rs. 4,869). Therefore, these other expenses on 5,300 ships will be Rs. 10,600,000 at the rate of Rs. 2,000 per ship. And then the total expenses will be :

(1) Wages	Rs.	24,541,650
(2) Other General Expenses ..	Rs.	10,600,000
	Rs.	35,141,650

Thus the cost to the shipowners on an average will be Rs. 35,141,650 while the total freight earnings will be about Rs. 27,216,000 leaving a deficit of about Rs. 7,925,650. (We have taken the expenses on the total number of ships for our above calculation, while we have taken freight earned only on 4500 ships. The reason as explained previously is obvious. Even though some ships may be laid up temporarily, the expenses would continue to run all the

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same). Unless therefore, the shipowners get on average about Rs. 5-8-0 per ton higher than the rate of freight over the assumed average rate of Rs. 18 per ton, they will definitely be losers. That is to say, they must earn about Rs. 23-8-0 per ton on an average for the season. Even then they will only be able to meet all the expenses leaving practically nothing as return for their capital. The only possible reduction is that on insurance premium and depreciation whereby they may get a small margin for themselves. They may have therefore to run their ships uninsured in order that they may make profit without deducting anything for depreciation.

We have gone to the length of making the above calculations of various types in order to indicate the enormity of the problem. The figures of cargo carried on the west coast alone, freight thus earned, the capital invested, the wages paid and the other expenses incurred are such that the sailing vessels cannot be neglected. Apparently unassuming and hardly perceptible, the greatness of the sailing vessel traffic becomes visible only when we sit down to make the calculations as above. Then only we are faced with the realisation that after all the sailing vessel traffic also can be counted amongst the major activities of the people of India. Besides this, just imagine the number of people employed in constructing and repairing the ships themselves, and further in preparing other equipments necessary for the ships, such as sail cloth, nails, paints, ropes, anchors and a host of other equipments and materials made in India. How many people are employed in such allied and subsidiary industries? Millions. How much of country's timber is being appropriated for the construction of sailing vessels? How many men are employed in this timber trade? Think.

Thus, when we take all these subsidiary activities into consideration, we can have some idea of the large number of people that find employment because of the existence of the sailing vessel traffic, and also of the vastness of funds invested in the traffic itself and in the allied activities.

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From the above calculations and statements alone, we can therefore draw the following conclusions in respect of sailing ship traffic :—

1. Capital invested in the sailing vessels is quite substantial, equivalent to the capital of a large steamship company owning about 30 cargo steamers of about 5,000 tons capacity each.
2. Wages paid per season are only a little less than the revenue of the Baroda State.
3. Employment for about 40,000 men is provided directly by actually running and maintaining 5300 ships on the west coast.

   Employment in subsidiary industries is provided by sailing ships for lacs of people.
4. The quantity of cargo carried by sailing vessels in **nine** months on the west coast of India alone compares to about 22% (about 1,500,000 tons) of the entire quantity of cargo carried by about 50 steamers (of average capacity of 5000 tons) on the coast of India, Burma and Ceylon in **twelve** months, or by 62 setamers (of the average capacity of 5000 tons each) in nine months. If the quantity of cargo moved in the course of inter-port traffic on the west coast of India alone is taken into consideration, then the percentage of the cargo moved by sailing vessels on the west coast would be about 40% or perhaps more of the entire cargo moved by steamers and sailing vessels on the west coast in twelve months.
5. The sailing vessels have practically a sphere of their own and they are rendering valuable services in that sphere, both in normal and war times without encroaching on the steamship traffic.
6. There are, as we have seen before, some functions which are performed exclusively each by steamship and sailing ship in which they cannot replace each other. Therefore, the question of

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any keen competition between them in those spheres does not arise.

Obviously the sailing ships are no rivals of steamships. They only complement the steamship traffic on the one hand, and act as a supplement where steamships are unable to operate.

7. Consequently, progress in sailing vessel traffic is not necessarily a hindrance to steamship traffic on the coast.
8. With scientific development and organisation of the traffic, the sailing ships should prove of great value to the national economy of India without hampering the development of the steamship traffic.
9. In times to come, a major portion of the Indian steamship tonnage may be utilized for India's foreign trade, whereby Indian-made products may be carried in Indian bottoms to those countries, which buy and sell to India, on a definite basis of reciprocity with such countries.
10. In any scheme of this nature, the sailing vessel with the possible improvement in the form of auxiliary oil engines fitted to such ships, will be of great assistance to coastal traffic.
11. With proper regulations introduced to organise the traffic, greater confidence will be reposed in the efficacy of the sailing ships.

It will thus be seen that the sailing vessel and the steamship are not exactly antagonists of each other. In some respects they complement each other; in others they act as supplements of each other. Each one has its own sphere to a certain extent from which they cannot dislodge each other. Consequently, their respective development in India should not be neglected. And the greatest factor in favour of the sailing vessel is the utilisation of Nature power for its propelling. To that extent coal, oil, and|or electricity is saved to the country besides reducing the rate of freight.

We may now give herebelow some specimen comparative rates as applicable for 1943-44 season in respect of cargo carried by steamers and sailing vessels :—

The Schedule of the comparative rates of steamer and sailing vessel on the west coast of India for general cargo and cotton on scale ton basis (for 1942-43 and 1943-44 Seasons).

Port From :	Port to.	Steamer Freight.		Sailing Vessel Freight (average for the season).	
Karachi	Bombay	Cotton	Rs. 27 8 0	Cotton	Rs. 18 0 0
		G. Cargo.	Rs. 20 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 18 0 0
,,	Navlakhi & Bedi.	Cotton	Rs. 25 0 0	Cotton	Rs. 12 0 0
		G. Cargo.	Rs. 15 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 10 0 0
,,	Veraval, Porbunder Bhavnagar.			Cotton	Rs. 12 0 0
		G. Cargo.	Rs. 15 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 12 0 0
,,	Cochin & Calicut.	Cotton	Rs. 35 0 0	Cotton	Rs. 26 0 0
		G. Cargo.	Rs. 28 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 30 0 0
Bombay	Cochin & Calicut.	G. Cargo.	Rs. 20 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 11 0 0
,,	Colombo.	G. Cargo.	Rs. 40 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 45 0 0
,,	Marmagoa.	G. Cargo.	Rs. 15 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 9 0 0
,,	Karachi.	G. Cargo.	Rs. 22 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 14 0 0
,,	Bhavnagar, Veraval & Porbunder.	G. Cargo.	Rs. 18 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 12 0 0
,,	Navlakhi & Bedi.	G. Cargo.	Rs 22 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 14 0 0
Cochin	Bombay.	G. Cargo.	Rs. 35 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 25 0 0
,,	Karachi.	G. Cargo.	Rs. 50 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 30 0 0
Calicut	Bombay.	G. Cargo.	Rs. 30 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 22 0 0
,,	Karachi.	G. Cargo.	Rs. 40 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 28 0 0
Mangalore	Bombay.	G. Cargo.	Rs. 25 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 22 0 0
Marmagoa	Bombay.	G. Cargo.	Rs. 20 0 0	G. Cargo.	Rs. 11 0 0
Navlakhi	Bombay.	—	—	G. Cargo.	Rs. 15 0 0
Bedi	Bombay.	—	—	G. Cargo.	Rs. 15 0 0
Veraval	Bombay.	—	—	G. Cargo.	Rs. 14 0 0
Bhavnagar	Bombay.	—	—	G. Cargo.	Rs. 12 0 0

"G Cargo" means "General Cargo."

Special rates for tiles by sailing vessels:

Mangalore.	Bombay.	Rs.	35	0	0
Calicut.	Bombay.	,,	40	0	0
Mangalore.	Colombo.	,,	65	0	0
Calicut.	Colombo	,,	65	0	0
Calicut.	Karachi.	,,	65	0	0
Calicut.	Kathiawar Ports.	,,	55	0	0

CHAPTER XVII.

GOVERNMENT ORGANISATION AND CONTROL

So far we have dealt with the traffic in general as far as it relates to the various units of the public which conduct it. But we shall now see as to how the Government is in these days helping this traffic.

Government organisation of the sailing ship traffic owes its inception to the War Transport Department and then to the report submitted in November 1942 to the Government of India by Dr. H. T. Sorley, C.I.E., I.C.S., LL.D., the then Commissioner of Northern Division and presently Chief Secretary to the Government of Bombay, and Rao Bahadur Maneklal Lallubhai, O.B.E., formerly Collector of Salt Revenue, Bombay.

The Committee recommended the establishment of a Country Craft Organisation Office for the west coast (but with the jurisdiction only up to Cochin in the south and Karachi in the north) with Intelligence Officers at important centres of traffic. The office was to be directly under the War Transport Department of the Government of India, thus having All-India affiliations. The jurisdiction has since been extended up to Tuticorin.

Accordingly, on December 1, 1942, the office of the Country Craft Organisation Officer was established in Bombay (at Phoenix Building, Ballard Estate, but later removed in July 1943 to the United India Building, Sir Pherozshah Mehta Road, Fort). Rao Bahadur Maneklal Lallubhai, one of the members of the Sorley Committee and the most experienced officer in the line was appointed

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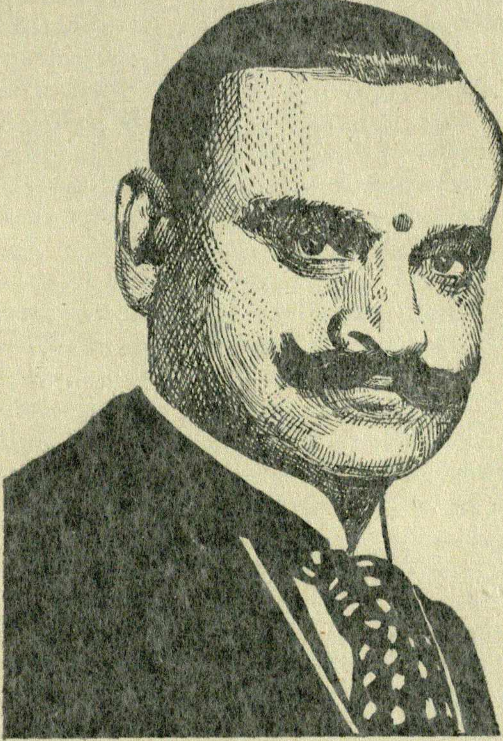

Major Shrimant Sardar Dharamaveer Chandroji Sambhaji Rao Angre, Wazarat Moab, Sawai Sarkhel, Bahadur, A.D.C. to His Highness Maharaja Scindia, Gwalior. Sardar Chandroji Rao Angre is the present lineal descendant of the intrepid Mahratta Admiral of the Fleet, Kanhoji Angre, mentioned in this book.

as the officer-in-charge of the office. Bombay was decidedly the most suitable and central place for the office and Rao Bahadur Maneklal was rightly selected as he knew every inch of the coast and had intimate knowledge of the sailing ship traffic extending over several years. He was given the assistance of three Intelligence Officers* at Bombay, Karachi and Calicut (for Malabar including Cochin), these three being obviously the most important centres of the traffic, the last two forming practically the two terminii of traffic routes with Bombay as the centre. Major E. H. Hawes, M.B.E., former Assistant Collector in charge of the Customs Preventive Service at Bombay was attached to the Bombay Office as Intelligence Officer. Mr. F. W. Boorer, M.B.E., and Mr. P. A. Pishroti, B.A., retired Gazetted Officers of the Customs Service, were appointed in similar capacity at Karachi and Calicut respectively.

But the difficulties in the initial stages of the organization were innumerable. When a new organisation is to be set up out of nothing, one has to face various problems and obstacles and sometimes even unwanted criticism. As observed by the Sorley Committee no statistics of the traffic by sailing vessels were available. There were no Associations of shipowners or of their crew from whom one could obtain any information. There were hardly any capitalists or big merchants interested in the traffic. Such merchants would not come forward because it was thought derogatory by them to take up this old-time business indicating the backwardness in transport in these days of power-driven ships. If they take up to sailing vessel traffic, it would throw a blot on their progressive, modern and up-to-date ideas and on methods of business and transport. So, the big merchants and capitalists did not pay attention to this line. Steamship companies would not get interested, as the traffic was too beneath their dignity, and also perhaps they thought it dangerous to develop this rival

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* These officers are now designated as "Assistant Country Craft Officers".

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means of transport which might adversely affect them in postwar period. And therefore, even with the few steamers they carried on their trade but did not feel interested in the traffic by sailing ships. The smaller merchants had not had the requisite means to undertake big share in the development. Those that conducted this business as a part of their trading organisation for years, felt that if they helped to develop the traffic, others who might follow them would share in the fruits of their labour. So, they wanted monopoly of the entire traffic by sailing vessels on the west coast for a stated period, at least so far as the carriage of Government and Military goods was concerned. Creation of such a monopoly for the entire coast was undesirable, inasmuch as, it would not only have given rise to hostile criticism, but it would have stultified and perhaps throttled the growth of sailing vessel traffic. In the most undeveloped state of the organisation of the traffic at that time, the monopolist might have dictated to the Government in the matter of rates and demanded various other facilities which could have been later a subject of virulent controversies and criticism of the Government. The shippers of cargo on the other hand were reluctant to divert their traffic to sailing vessels as they considered the ships unsafe.

Such was the state of affairs when the Country Craft Organization Officer took charge of his office in December, 1942.

He had therefore to work against strong opposition and had to devote his attention to removing the prejudice of the mercantile community. Everything seemed to be in chaos, and the officer had practically to grope in the dark. He had to contend against these initial difficulties and prejudices. Gradually, however, things began to take shape. And the writer who was not himself so very enthusiastic about the scheme, had personally watched with silent admiration the patient and painstaking effort with which progress was made by the office step by step with minimum expense and without any publicity. The writer has watched also how some shipping agents were called one after another and induced to assist in the traffic by sailing vessels. He was one of the many so invited from time to time, and frankly speaking he was not much impressed in the initial visits. But eventually the writer was convinced of the practicability of the scheme. Several other business firms and merchants were then induced to ship their cargo by sailing vessels and were ultimately converted.

And thus the Country Craft Organisation Office and its activities began to take shape. And yet in the beginning the officer had practically to create carrying agencies from unwilling men and firms to transport Government and Military cargo, such as bricks from Kalyan, timber from Thana District and Malabar, and later foodgrains from Bombay to Konkan ports late in the season (from March 1943). The Government Departments that had goods to be carried by sailing vessels would consult the Country Craft Organisation Officer for suitable parties who would then quote rates to the Departments concerned. These Departments also consulted the Country Craft Organisation Officer, (C.C.O.O.) in fixing rates; but often they also fixed same independently of him on the basis of the quotations received.

Gradually, the Carrying Agencies for the transportation of Government and Military cargo came into being. In the initial stages when there was no competition some of the agencies were benefitted by the traffic in proportion to the initial sacrifices made by them. Their pioneering work was rewarded to a certain extent. This attracted the notice of other merchants, even of big merchants and steamship companies, who saw that after all there was some money in the traffic and that it was not entirely negligible. Several of them who looked askance at the traffic in the beginning thus came into the field, and towards the close of 1942-43 season, there were other firms in the field besides those who helped the Government to develop the traffic in the initial stages during that season.

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The Country Craft Organisation Office, thus, laid the foundation of systematic assistance to the sailing vessel traffic, and organisation thereof proceeded apace. Gradually the traffic was developed and there was a general confidence in the public that not only sailing ships were a tolerable substitute for steamships in times of emergency, but that they were not less efficient except in the matter of speed.

Thereafter, gradual progress has been achieved by the office under the aegis of the War Transport Department.

Later on, however, a new post of the Controller of Indian Shipping was created in August 1943 and Capt. H. L. Davis erstwhile Indian Shipping Adviser was appointed to the post. Another post of a Joint Controller of Indian shipping was also created, and Mr. J. P. Mehta, formerly of Scindia Steam Navigation Co., Ltd. and the Bombay Steam Navigation Co., Ltd., was assigned to the post. Lieutenant-Commander P. Collinson, R. N. R. was appointed Assistant Controller.

Subsequently, however, Mr. L. T. Gholap, I.C.S. formerly Under Secretary, Government of India, Department of Commerce, was appointed as the Controller of Indian Shipping, and Capt. Davis was designated as Additional Controller. Lt. Commander Collinson left in March 1944 and in his place Mr. A. M. Baakza of the Bombay Steam Navigation, Karachi, was taken up to fill up the post.

Mr. Gholap actually took charge in Bombay on March 27, 1944.

The Office of the Controller of Indian Shipping is under the Commerce Department of the Government of India and not under the War Transport Department. The Controller exercises authority over all shipping including steamships and sailing vessels. But while the Controller is primarily responsible to the Commerce Department to which he owes his appointment, he has, so far as the sailing ship traffic is concerned, to work also in collaboration with the War Transport Department which has a Joint Secretary for steamship traffic and another Joint Secretary for sailing ship traffic. Thus while the controller owes the inception of his office to the Commerce Department, various functions of his concerning the sailing vessel traffic come obviously under the jurisdiction of the War Transport Department. And he has also, so to say, to work in close cooperation with the Department for the transport questions relating to steamships and sailing vessels.

Further while the Commerce Department is a permanent national department of the Government of India and subject to control and criticism of the Assembly and the Council of State, the War Transport Department is a temporary war measure designed to aid transport during the war. The Department therefore is likely to subserve primarily the needs of the war rather than permanent national interests. And as soon as the war ends, it may be dissolved because its name signifies it.

This appointment of the Shipping Controller under the Commerce Department is to be welcomed as the same comes under the jurisdiction of the permanent national department, though the appointment appears to be of a temporary nature. But if the sailing vessel traffic is to be developed as energetically as it was done so far by the Country Craft Organisation Office, it is desirable that it should receive a special treatment and encouragement which the War Transport Department alone can give and had given so far. It is only during war times that the sailing vessel traffic has received such definite encouragement. This is due to the war time measures adopted by the specially created War Transport Department. And therefore, it may appear reasonable that further development should also be the responsibility of the same Department. If placed under the Commerce Department, the development of the traffic is likely to be subject to the exigencies of the general trade and commerce of the country and to the interests of steamship traffic as well. It is not denied that the Commerce Department will not neglect the due encouragement of the sailing ship traffic. But the department which has so many problems to think of about commerce and industries

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of the country as a whole involving problems relating to the supply of materials for industries, export and import permits and licences, and a host of other related subjects, can have but a small niche for the sailing vessel in its vast organisation and multifarious duties and activities. Under the War Transport Department which is created entirely for transport purposes, the sailing vessel is likely to receive some special treatment which it needs, and but for which the traffic could not have been placed on a progressive footing. The interests of the sailing vessel organisation are likely to be better served under the stimulus and exclusive attention given to it by the War Transport Department during the war times at least. After the war, the Commerce Department should take charge of the sailing vessel traffic which would then be in a much better stage of organisation.

Any way, at present (April, 1944) there appears to be a lot of confusion caused both in the sailing vessel traffic and in its organisation by the apparent disharmonies in the responsibility and functions of the Controller of Indian Shipping and the Country Craft Organisation Officer. The latter, while officially under the War Transport Department, is also placed under the jurisdiction of the Controller of Indian Shipping. He, having enjoyed locally exclusive power till the appointment of the Shipping Controller and independently established the organization, naturally will be loth to submit to the control of a new authority not directly under the War Transport Department. Any one in that position would not feel otherwise, especially when that officer was actually responsible for the creation of the organisation in the initial and difficult stages and catered for its progress on a stable basis. The Shipping Controller on the other hand, would naturally feel that as the Controller of the entire Indian shipping, all the questions relating to the sailing vessel traffic should be handled by him. But officially the Country Craft Organisation Office is not under him. The Office is under the War Transport Department which has neither appointed the Controller nor can it re-

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move him from his office. These incongruities are likely to create a tussel for division of functions and power, and the interests of the sailing vessel are likely to be neglected therein. To boot, there are the Provincial Governments of Bombay, Sind and Madras which have their own organisations in a way for taking care of their transport problems. This may make the confusion worse confounded. We believe, therefore, that the Government of India have yet to make up their mind as to the line of policy to be followed in respect of sailing vessel traffic and to stop making experiments in that direction. Coordination must be achieved which will make any possible friction amongst different units impossible. It is hoped, however, that the new Controller of Indian Shipping would help to remove these incongruities and allocate different functions to the various Departmental units. The trade would be watching his progress with great interest.

Contracts Placing Departments.

So far we have dealt with the organisation and control of the various Departments of the Government that control and guide the interests of the sailing ship traffic.

But the departments that actually have good to be moved and entrust the transportation of such goods to Carrying Agencies are still different. It is in their power to actually cater to the traffic and encourage it in one way or the other. They provide as a sort of procedure for the policy laid down by the Government of India and Provincial Governments by imposing various conditions for the transport of their goods by the carrying agencies, whereby they serve to regulate the traffic in various ways. The Departments fix actual rates of freight and other charges sometimes in consultation with the Country Craft Organisation Officer and the Shipping Controller by inviting tenders or otherwise. Thereby these Departments act as the real Government executives in the sailing vessel traffic.

It will not therefore be out of place to mention some of the important Departments. They are :—

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Name of the Departmental Officer :	Goods to be transported.
1. The Director of Civil Supplies, Bombay.	Foodgrains, Charcoal, Fuels, etc.
2. The Textile Commissioner, Bombay.	Standard Cloth, Cotton, etc.
3. Sea Transport Officer, Bombay.	Bricks, Sand, Military and Naval Stores and various other similar commodities.
4. The Chief Shipping Officer, Delhi, and his Circle Shipping Officers.	"Lend and Lease" goods mainly.
5. The Timber Directorate, Bombay.	Timber.
6. Several Naval and Military Authorities, Delhi and Bombay.	Various commodities like Timber, Tiles, Bricks, Ordinance Stores etc.
7. Director of Food for Sind, Karachi.	Foodgrains, etc.
8. Various Railway Organisations, like Kathiawar Railways, M. & S. M. Rly., S. I. Rly., etc.	Rail-cum-Sea transport of various goods.

Thus the Government organisation of different units is fairly complete. But coordination on a progressive basis which will eliminate friction or duplication of work is necessary. The present attempt at coordination is more or less an experiment. It may be all right to introduce Naval or Civilian Officers to achieve this co-ordination. But they must have the closest cooperation of men having sufficient business and shipping experience, and who would at the same time pay keen attention to the financial aspect of the problem, so as to evolve a practical scheme for laying down definite policy in which the interests of the sailing ship traffic will be properly safeguarded. The present policy just to bale out contracts to the lowest bidder and to let loose competition will, not only, not help the traffic but will be definitely detrimental to the development of same. A definitely planned programme is necessary if the desired goal is to be reached.

For this, there should be a combined or coordinating office composed of all Government and Military Departments where the requirements of space for cargo to be carried by sailing ships on account of the various Government and Military Departments during the three periods of the fair season should be registered, if possible, before the commencement of the new season. Quotations should then be invited from the Shipping Agents for the transport of cargo, and from amongst such tenderers, suitable parties should be selected for each route on the basis of approved rates for the three periods of the season. The Agents would then know the approximate quantity of cargo that they will have to transport by sailing vessels, provide themselves with the requisite number of ships in advance, because usually during the months of July and August, the sailing ships are chartered out and hired for the next season. Thereby the Shipping Agents may be able to carry the Government and Military cargo as well as commercial cargo that may be offered at the rates approved by the Government. They may if necessary form their own Consulting Board or Committee. There will then be no need for fixation of freight rates for all ships. The organisation will work smoothly provided of course that the possible competition between steamships and sailing vessels is eliminated. If worked somewhat on the lines as indicated above, it is possible to regulate the traffic in an efficient manner, and make it useful both for war effort and for the general economic development of the country.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE CARRYING AGENCIES.

We have seen in Chapter V under the caption "Chartering and its Organisation" that the Shipping

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Agent has now assumed a greater importance in the sailing vessel traffic than even the shipowner himself.

The shipowner even when he is his own **tindel**, would prefer to charter out his ship through a broker either to an ultimate shipper or to a middleman who is shipping agent. In any case, most of the owners who are usually away from important centres of traffic are not often seen handling the business of their ship themselves. Most of them are illiterate and often do not know the sources of cargo nor are they well acquainted with the recurring and ever-increasing Customs and Port formalities. This being so, even when the owner happens to be the tindel of his ship, he would prefer to let out his ship for full cargo to one charterer through a broker instead of accepting small parcels of cargo from various shippers. The broker also is often content with his local business only. The shipping agent therefore assumes an important position in the sailing vessel traffic.

Owing therefore to the varied functions performed by the shipping agents as seen by us in chapter V and the important role that they play in the sailing vessel organisation, the traffic is mostly under their control. Most owners would rather allot their ship to him for running, and remain content with the net charter hire that they would themselves get. And to the shippers, he is also a convenient medium through whom to proceed in the matter of their shipments. He has besides a fairly efficient organisation with his agencies at different ports, sometimes even in foreign countries, and thus he gives to the shipowner and the shipper the benefit of his organisation at the port of shipment and the port of destination.

The institution of shipping agents has thus been evolved, and in these days both shipowners and shippers are quite willing to concede to the shipping agents certain allowance in the form of commission. Most of the traffic on the coast of India in these days is being carried through them and to a certain extent through brokers.

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With the advent of the war and with the consequent necessity of conserving steamer tonnage and railway waggons, the shipping agent is now called upon to play even a more important and varied part by the public and by the Government. The latter have come to the conclusion that in order to effect a diversion of trade from steamships and railways to sailing ships, they must look to the Shipping Agent for performing this function. He is useful not only for the public cargo but also for the Government and Military cargo to be shipped from various ports. He lessens their worries, saves them a lot of unnecessary expense; and what is more, he gives them all the advantage of his experience and organisation of the business at various places. His experience of the traffic as a whole and of the conditions prevailing at different ports during different periods of the season are very valuable to the trade. This naturally tends to a smooth working of the line of traffic under his agency. Besides, if he concentrates on any one particular line of route, he is able to specialise in the traffic and effect considerable saving. Both the Government and the public therefore prefer to approach a shipping agent who has a control over a large number of ships for the carriage of their goods and who has established his reputation as a carrier of goods by sailing vessels.

The following qualifications will, therefore, be expected from a Shipping Agent to whom the Government and the public might like to entrust large cargoes for carriage on long-term contract basis or for any individual lot :—

(1) The Agent must have control over a large number of sailing ships of various types. If he himself owns a number of them, it is all the better.

(2) The Agent must have his organisation at important ports on the coast and also abroad if necessary.

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(3) The Agent must have an outdoor shipping staff thoroughly conversant with the Port and Customs formalities at various ports.

(4) The Agent must have a long-standing experience of the sailing ship traffic on the various routes on the coast.

(5) The Agent must have experience of the sailing conditions and weather in different periods of the shipping season and of the movements of cargo in various directions all over the coast.

(6) The Agent also should have valuable connections at the ports of shipment and ports of destination, which may be of value to the shippers.

(7) The Agent must be financially sound.

(8) The Agent must be a man or a firm of good standing and prestige in the sphere of general trade and industry of the country.

(9) The Agent must be in a position to create sufficient confidence amongst the shippers that he would stand by his obligations if once their contracts are placed with him. That is to say, he must have secured their goodwill.

(10) If the Agent has already done similar work, he lays his claim for further work.

Amongst others, the above qualifications will entitle a person or a firm to undertake carriage of goods by sailing ships on behalf of the Government and the public. There is a heavy responsibility on the Agent who is responsible both to his principals (shippers of cargo) and to the shipowners. It is therefore only those who have thorough experience of the sailing ship traffic coupled with the necessary organisation will be able to fulfil their contracts efficiently. Consequently the shipping agent has always to be watchful and circumspect in every direction. It is due mainly to him that the outport organisation at different ports is created, and both the shippers and shipowners

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are afforded the benefits of such organisation. Time was when the shipowners themselves were traders, who carried their own cargo in their own ships on the coast or abroad, sold it there and purchased other cargo in its place and brought it back home for sale. But those days are now practically over, and people follow the steamship traffic managed by owners or shipping agents who hardly do their own trading and carry their own cargo. Such owners or agents become common carriers for others. It is exactly this function of the steamship agents that is fulfilled by the shipping agent in the sailing vessel traffic, with this difference that most of the owners of sailing vessels do not operate their own ships in these days to any large extent. Many of the ships are given to the shipping agent for operation or to the tindels on the working partnership basis. In the steamship traffic most of the owners operate their own ships even though they may also be chartering "tramp" steamers for their business. The shipping agent in the steamship traffic is primarily a part and parcel of the ownership of the steamers operated by him. In the sailing vessel traffic, the shipping agent is primarily a charterer and incidentally a shipowner.

This being the case, the shipping agent is called upon to render service to the different units in various ways right from the time of chartering a ship to the delivery of the cargo at destination. And those alone who are acquainted with the shipping business can know what it means. To charter a ship, to advertise the fact to the public that the ship is scheduled to sail for such and such port or ports on such and such dates, to book cargo for it by issuing shipping orders, to get it loaded and for that purpose to find out the necessary labour and lighters whenever the latter are necessary, to issue Mate's Receipts, to issue Bill of Lading where necessary, to issue sailing instructions to the tindels, to attend to the requirements of the tindels, to send letters, copies of Bs|L and copy of the Manifest for each port to his agent at destination, to attend to all the requirements of the Customs and Port Offices at various places, to attend to inquiries of shippers and consignees even during various stages of transportation, and a host of other questions till the cargo is delivered to the rightful consignee at the other end. These are amongst the routine functions required to be performed by shipping agents. As if all this multifarious work is not enough, the shipping agent is not left in peace even after delivery of cargo. There is the perennial nuisance of claims to be attended to thereafter.

And just imagine the voluminous correspondence involved in all this in respect of one ship only. How much more voluminous will the work and correspondence be when there are several ships to be operated by him? This has only to be imagined.

And yet, he does all this and saves his principals a considerable worry and even expense.

For the Government and Military Departments specially, the shipping agent is of decided benefit because of the multifarious duties performed by him. Traffic by sailing ships and the attendant formalities and requirements being new to most of them, they prefer to engage the services of a shipping agent instead of approaching individual shipowners themselves, and a lot of worry and inconvenience is saved to them by conceding a small profit to the shipping agent. It might cost them much more to do the work themselves, and this extra expense is saved to them by the specialised knowledge and experience of the shipping agent. Consequently the shipping agent stands to-day in the position of the greatest utility to all concerned in the traffic.

While on this subject, we may take note of the several suggestions made during the last season (1943) for appointing agencies on the west coast of India for the carriage of Government and Military cargo. The proposals, some coming from the officials themselves and others from some other interests and public bodies, had all ultimately to be given up owing to uncertainty of the manner in which the traffic on the west coast should be regulated. That was

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the evil day when these attempts at regularising the traffic were given up. The abandonment of these efforts subsequently threw the whole traffic into confusion and competition was let loose on the coast. This competition neither benefitted the Government nor the public. Several new-comers having very little experience of the sailing vessel traffic and whose imagination was fired by the reported high profits made by other shipping agents who worked for the Government during the 1942-43 season, came into the field and tried to secure business at unworkable and unremunerative rates. This competition amongst the Shipping Agents on the one hand to secure contracts brought down the contract rates to unworkable levels, and on the other hand, their eagerness to secure ships when each Agent offered more and more inducement to the shipowners in order to make sure of ships for his purpose, naturally put up the rates of freight demanded by the owners who were already worried by the increased cost of living and high cost of materials. They found a good opportunity to demand high freight to make up for the increased cost. Another reason for the demand of such high rates of freight was that the ships were being forced on longer routes for such cargoes as food-grains as between Karachi and Alleppey, and the shipowners therefore naturally demanded very high rates of freight. Third reason was that about 70 vessels from Kathiawar and Cutch (with a total tonnage of about 10,000 tons) were engaged during the 1943-44 season on the passenger traffic between India and Africa. And about 60 to 70% of the Arab ships which usually visit Indian coast did not do so during the season because of the restriction on the export of wet dates from Arabia and the very high prices of that commodity. Many Arabian ships therefore had no cargo for India and they did not want to make ballast voyages to this country. They were therefore not available for the trade on the Indian coast. Such Arab ships often came handy in the past for the long distance traffic from Karachi to Malabar.

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They could do one or two trips on the Indian coast when cargo for Arabia could be found for them.

All these factors created a sort of scarcity of ships, especially of decked ships, suitable for long distance traffic, and a very curious situation followed in which the rates for the contracts entrusted to Agents were in some cases even lower than the rates of freight demanded by the shipowners.

This was expected owing to the indecision in which the whole traffic was left last September (1943). But apart from this, the traffic itself was not properly and efficiently handled in time and without delay as the low contract rates naturally had an adverse effect on the berthing programs of the shipping agents, which made it impossible for them to work out their plans for the season on the basis of those unworkable rates.

This experience should, therefore, prove of inestimable value for the next season at least. In view of it and in view of the necessity of stabilising the traffic on organised basis, let us examine the relative merits of the suggestions made last year for the appointment of shipping agents on the basis of (1) Zone System, and (2) the Central Booking Agency System.

The Zone or Route System:—This was suggested by the officers of the War Transport Department themselves.

In this scheme, the whole west coast, specially between Karachi and Cochin, was to be divided into five zones according to the natural movement of traffic and natural movement of ships also in some cases. A Shipping Agent was to be appointed for each of these zones for the carriage of Government and Military cargo only at the rates approved and accepted by the Government of India for the whole season. These rates were to be fixed by inviting quotations from reliable shipping agents and also to be based on the experience of the previous season. The movement of the public cargo was to be left free to the option of the private shippers in each zone who were under no obligation to ship their cargo through the shipping agent for the zone. The Shipping Agent, therefore, became a contractor for the carriage of Government and Military cargo only, just as any contractor in any other line, say, for carrying out a Government project such as constructing a building or a bridge. Government was not to be asked to requisition ships or to fix the rates at which ships were to be chartered by the Shipping Agents from the owners. The zone-holder was to attend to all the formalities and requirements of the traffic in respect of Government and Military cargo, and was also free to carry public cargo whenever his services would be required.

In order to have some uniformity in rates and in working, facility for fixing shipping program and easy movement in the limited scope of the zone, the zone system afforded ample scope. Coordination amongst the five different zones was to be achieved through the officers of the War Transport Department who were to assist the zone-holders in the traffic. This would have eliminated overlapping and friction, and if any ship had to be sent from one zone to another under some unusual circumstances, the zone-holder at the destination would have cooperated to load such ship on its return journey if cargo was available instead of sending it back in ballast.

The selection of such agents was intended to be made preferably from amongst those who had actually proved their merits by fulfilling Government and Military contracts during the most difficult period of 1942-43 season when no others came forward to assist the Government in the traffic. During that season, as we have seen before in Chapter XVII, it took a lot of inducing and coaxing on the part of the Country Craft Organisation Officer to prepare firms and persons to take up Government and Military contracts for the carriage of goods by sailing ships, as the contemptible "country craft" was beneath the dignity of many! How to enter the "out of fashion" and "antedated" traffic by "country craft"? This was repulsive to many in those days of advance in modes of transport when ships are propelled by steam, oil and electricity. It would be

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losing caste if one were to enter the "country craft" traffic. And so, many firms and persons threw away the opportunity of serving the country and the Government, lest they should be styled as orthodox, unprogressive, unfashionable and antedated back numbers. In these circumstances, therefore, such agents who came forward during the 1942-43 season to help the Government in organising the traffic in the initial stages and actually fulfilled Government and Military contracts, laid prior claims for selection as agents. Government could not take risks in trying to make further experiments, and the actual experience of the shipping agent was to be considered the most important factor in selecting Agents for the various zones.

The zones or routes were to be as follow :—

1. Bombay-Karachi and vice a versa.
2. Bombay & Malabar to—Kathiawar-Cutch, and vice a versa.
3. Bombay—Gujerat (including Bhavnagar in Kathiawar) and vice a versa.
4. Bombay—Malabar, and vice a versa.
5. Karachi—Kathiawar and Cutch and vice a versa.

A more beneficial and more natural movement of traffic could not have been suggested. The only variation would have been the creation of the long-distance zone between Karachi and Malabar and another between Malabar and Kathiawar—Gujerat. Thereby the entire coast between Karachi and Alleppey would have been brought under operation. But these long-distance zones could have been avoided by introducing such an arrangement between the respective zone-holders for Bombay-Malabar and Bombay-Karachi and Kathiawar Routes as would have achieved some cooperative working. In fact, there was nothing to hinder such smooth working. Thereby the rates demanded by the owners for the carriage of foodgrains and cotton from Karachi to Malabar would not have soared so high as they did from February 1944 onwards. The main reason for the high-soaring rates along with others was that the ships were asked to ply on long routes, to which may be added the fear of war dangers in the areas around Malabar and further south.

Thus the zone system met most of the requirements of the traffic without seriously infringing on the established practices and without dislocating the routine of the traffic.

2. Central Booking Agency.

The other scheme suggested by some interests and merchants' bodies was the creation of a Central Booking Agency for the purpose.

Under this scheme, one person or firm of repute connected with the shipping trade—not necessarily sailing vessel traffic—was to be appointed as Booking Agent for the entire coast on a fixed commission basis. This rate of commission, it is reported, was suggested to be fixed at somewhere near 7½% on the entire freight earned by the ships. A Standing Committee consisting of one representative each of the Booking Agency, the Indian Shipping Adviser (that was the title of the Officer until August 1943 but later changed to the "Controller of Indian Shipping") and the Country Craft Organization Officer was to be appointed to advise the Booking Agency, to settle any points of dispute and to revise the rates whenever necessary. The Government was to be asked to announce that all ships above 40 tons were to pass under the control of the Central Booking Agency. Probably at a later stage, the crew would have been also required to be kept in the service by the application of the Essential Services Rules under the Defence of India Act.

The Booking Agency was to establish an office of the Agency at some central place, presumably Bombay, the expenses of which together with the expenses of its branches and agencies at outports were expected to be borne by the Government. The Agency was expected to handle on behalf of the Government the entire traffic on the west coast of India including private traffic. The rates of freight were to be fixed for the season over which the Booking Agency was to get its fixed commission. The Agency

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would then maintain on the one hand a list of Government and Military contracts for the carriage of Government and Military cargo as well as public cargo for and at various ports, and on the other, a list of available ships at different ports. All cargo at all ports was thus to be booked with the Central Booking Agency. Each ship after arrival at any port was to report to the representative of the Booking Agency, and the Customs Officers at various ports were not to issue clearance certificates to ships unless an application for clearance was endorsed and countersigned by a representative of the Booking Agency. No ship was to accept for loading any cargo without the written permission of the Central Booking Agency. Thereafter the cargo was to be apportioned to different ships according to the needs of the trade under the routing arrangement system. The operation of Booking Agency thus extended also over private cargo. Every shipper of cargo had also to approach the Booking Agent for the shipment of his cargo. He could not go to the wharf to charter any available ship or approach any broker or shipping agent for the purpose, as all ships were to be completely under the control of the Booking Agency.

This is in nutshell the brief outline of the two schemes proposed for establishing Carrying Agencies for the transportation of cargo on the west coast of India. From the above description one can easily judge the merits and demerits of each of the two schemes mentioned above.

But while the object aimed at by both was the same, that is, to render service to the Government and the public, the effect and implications of both the systems would have been widely divergent as will be plain to every one. The very nature of the two schemes is such that their advantages or disadvantages can be easily understood.

Thus, while the zone system met nearly all the requirements of enlightened traffic arrangement, the Central Booking Agency would have established a complete and most rigid monopoly of the entire traffic, government, military and commercial, on the west coast of India. No doubt the zone-holder would also have enjoyed a monopoly in his zone to a certain extent; but that monopoly would have been very restricted and limited in its sphere of operation and effect. It would have been a monopoly for Government and Military cargo only. Public cargo was free to move as it liked, and individual shipper had not at all to depend on the zone-holder. The element of competition even within the zone would have been maintained, because the private shipper and the zone-holder would have competed with each other for the carriage of private cargo. Thus the rate of freight would have maintained a rational level under the benefic influence of this competition. There would have been some competition between the private shippers and the zone-holders, and the shipowners also would have been benefitted by getting a fair rate of charter hire for their ships. The Zonal Agent could not have dictated his rate. And since, under this system no ships were to be requisitioned by the Government for employment by the zone-holder, the traffic of the zone would have been placed under the sobering and healthy influence of competition. Further there was reasonable expectation that the rates for private cargo would have followed the rates for Government cargo, and thus uniformity of rates would also have been established. But if private cargo were to be carried at lower rates of freight, the rates that could be quoted by the prospective zone-holders even at the beginning of the season, could not have been far different from the average rate paid by the private shippers for the season. The tenderers for the contracts would have always borne in mind the fact that there would be competition from others for private cargo, and so he could not have quoted any exhorbitant rates. However the average rate for the whole season for different kinds of cargo might have appeared a little high if compared with the rates prevailing in the first or second period of the season (i.e. from October to January) when rates are usually lower than in the closing months of the season. But if we take high rates into account which prevail during

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the initial and closing months, the average rates for the whole season which shipping agents might have tendered would not have appeared high.

The zone system further followed the natural trend of cargo and natural movements of ships as well, because it is well known that the sailing vessels usually follow well-marked routes for their trade and their crew do not like to go to any other route not known to them. Owing to this fact, it is possible that ships in some zones carry even some empty space or sail in ballast. But this could not have been avoided in any case, because, most of the ships would not be willing to sail elsewhere beyond their route even with the greatest inducement. Only a few of the Cutch-Kathiawar type of ships may ply all over the coast. But even many of this type of ships will not be willing to sail to any destination to suit the requirements of the shippers. And none of the ships of the Malabar, Ratnagiri and Thana types will ply on other tracks not frequented by them. They trade only on their beaten tracks and nothing would induce them to deflect from their course. They make up for their loss by charging higher rates for the cargo from the side from which the cargo is available and return in ballast to the ports on their route. And usually they ply only in the vicinity of their home ports and generally not beyond 400 to 500 miles. Consequently, it would be useless to argue with the crew to sail on the routes over which they do not like to ply or which are not familiar to them. The zone system therefore took careful cognizance of this predominant characteristic of the trade and intended to follow the line of least resistance to avoid entire dislocation of the traffic.

Under this system all freedom was left to the ship-owners and the crew, as the former were free to charter out their ships as they liked and the crew could continue to serve or desert as they liked. Further no shipper was to be compelled to approach the zone-holder for shipment of his cargo. He might do so of his own free will if he had found that shipping through the zone-holder was more advantageous to him. But if he does approach the shipping agent he must pay the government contract rates. This would have helped to effect uniformity in rates. The expenses of management for the whole zone were to be met by the zone-holder out of the fixed rate quoted by him in the beginning of the season, and there was no burden on the government for such expenses. The shipping agent had further to take the risk of excessive rise in rates of charter hire, because he was to be bound by one fixed rate for each kind of cargo for the whole season or a part of the season. There was also reasonable expectation that the selected shipping agents would have abided by their obligations. The rates that were actually quoted by the prospective shipping agents for the 1943-44 season were in accordance with the prevailing rates in the preceding two wartime seasons with due consideration for increased cost of living and materials, and were definitely lower on an average than those prevailing at present (March-April, 1944). The present excessive rise in freight and charter hire rates would no doubt have adversely affected the Shipping Agents; but in such an extraordinary situation, perhaps the Government might have stepped in to remedy same by revising the rates to meet the peculiar circumstances. But even if this was not done by the Government, selected shipping agents would have nevertheless carried out their contracts, as the firms selected as shipping agents were firms of prestige and good financial standing and would have discharged their obligations without regard to profit or loss.

The Central Booking Agency on the other hand, looked apparently harmless and a convenient medium for conducting the traffic. No doubt Government would have had to deal with only one Agency for the conduct of the entire business of the west coast. That is to say, chartering of ships and shipping cargo on the whole coast would have been the concern of one agency only and Government would have been saved the trouble of dealing with many agents. But concentration of cargo by registration would

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have followed and would possibly have led to congestion. And if attempts were made to force ships on unusual routes, the crew would have deserted or the ships would not have returned to the port. This might have led to the enforcement of the Defence of India Act (Essential Service Rules). And the natural consequences of the practical working of the Central Booking Agency would have possibly upset the smooth relationship of the various units and dislocated the entire organization of the traffic. Some of these consequences would have been :—

1. The brokers would have been only message-carriers of the Agency.
2. The shipowners would have been entirely at the mercy of the Agency, as they would have had no alternative choice of employment.
3. The shippers would have had no initiative, and would have been compelled to curry favour with the Booking Agency for the allotment of space on ships for their cargo.
4. The crew would, no doubt ultimately, have been brought under the rigidity of the Defence of India Act (Essential Services Rules) to avoid which they might have run away to Indian States from where many of them come. Those that remained, would have been kept under perennial threat of the Act and would have taken the first opportunity to run away under some plausible excuse with the intention of not returning at all.
5. The Central Booking Agent would have tried to force ships on routes unknown to the crew with a view to avoid their running in ballast, and thereby created confusion and discontent in the whole traffic, not to speak of accidents if ships were forced to run in unfrequented waters.
6. There would have been frequent instances of 'Jettisoning' or loss of cargo in a mysterious way

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which could have been challenged, because the discontented crew might be apt to any mischief.

7. Other shipping agents would have been thrown out of their legitimate line of business.
8. Government would have had to foot the bill of the office, travelling and all other incidental expenses incurred by the Agency over which the Government in actual practice would have had no control.
9. The Agency had no risks to shoulder, such as that involved in rise in rates of freight etc.
10. And with all this, the Central Booking Agency would have safely and quietly pocketed by way of commission a net sum of Rs. 19,41,200 by the close of the season at the rate of 7½% on the probable amount of freight of about Rs. 27,216,000 which was expected to be earned by all the sailing vessels during the 1943-44 season as seen by us in Chapter XVI preceding.

Thus, on the one hand the Central Booking Agency while apparently trying to work in the interest of the government only, would have established in actual practice an absolute control over the traffic and its different units. It would have been on the other hand safe in its earning a huge sum from the business. The enormity of the business would have further opened up several incidental profitable avenues of business for the Central Booking Agency, such as loading and unloading of goods, lighterage, supply of crew and rations, supply of stores and various other articles. Forwarding and despatching goods by lorries would have been another side business. And further the prestige enjoyed by the Central Booking Agent in the general trade and commerce of the country would have been so high that it would have benefitted him in various other ways.

And all this was to be gained together with the huge profit in the shape of commission without any risks and sacrifices whatsoever. Government and public would have footed the bill of the traffic and of the Agency, while the government would have been the subject of virulent criticism in the country from brokers, shipowners, shipping agents and the crew, in fact, from everybody concerned in the trade, but the Booking Agency would have remained safe.

Thus was proposed the creation of a Central Booking Agency by the very same interests and institutions who had in the same breath condemned the zone system on the grounds of creating five monopolies. They did not want five lukewarm monopolists in a limited sphere in respect of limited government and military cargo only. They condemned the five monopolists; but they wanted and actually countenanced a full-blooded single monopoly of the most complete and rigid type! To them five part-monopolists did not appeal; but in their place one full-fledged and absolute monopolist was acceptable!!

Our criticism is that perhaps they did not stop to reflect on the consequences and implications of the establishment of the Central Booking Agency that would have followed in actual practice.

Such were the relative advantages and disadvantages of the two systems for establishing carrying agencies that were proposed last year for the current season. Fortunately, government after careful consideration rejected the scheme for the Central Booking Agency; but it had also to put off the salutary zone scheme because the government apparently was placed in two minds owing to the propaganda against it carried on by the protagonists of the Central Booking Agency, without considering the great benefits that the trade would have derived by adopting the zone scheme. We firmly believe that the confusion that has now (March-April, 1944) been caused in the traffic on the west coast of India by way of the unexpected rise in rates of freight the delay in transport of foodgrains, the continued approach to the government for revision of rates and requisitioning of ships by refusing Port Clearance etc. is due to the postpone-

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ment of the zone scheme. There would neither have been the necessity of requisitioning the ships nor fixing rates of freight, nor also of keeping the crew bound under Defence of India Act (Essential Services Rules). The zone system, after some initial adjustments in inter-zone traffic would have worked smoothly under the guidance of the War Transport Department. It would have definitely led to regularizing the traffic and achieving uniformity of rates bordering on fixed rates. The problem of fixed rates would not have arisen. And several Government regulations regarding overloading, loadline, jettison, etc. would have been gradually brought into operation through the medium of the shipping agents almost imperceptibly and without the semblance of force with its consequent discontent amongst the shipowners and the crew. Such regulations would have been introduced without dislocation of the trade.

It is hoped, however, that in future at least no mistake will be made by rejecting once again the Zone or the Route System which though not perfect embodies the largest number of beneficial characteristics therein.

CHAPTER XIX.

FUTURE OF THE SAILING VESSEL.

After having examined various phases of the traffic by sailing vessels and its organisation, one would hardly resist the temptation of looking into its future. This future may appear dismal in view of the advanced ideas in the mode and means of transport. In fact in several advanced countries where mechanical development has reached almost to perfection, the sailing vessel has been gradually disappearing. It is difficult therefore in these days of power-propelled shipping to allocate a place of any great importance to the sailing ship in the future economic organisation of India.

The two great factors in favour of power-driven ships are the automatic internal power assuring regular speed

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and the consequent regularity in arrival at destination. Further the speed can be regulated as desired, because in such ships there is always some reserve power, and speed may be increased up to a certain limit or decreased as desired. There is also the higher speed per day on an average for any given length of period in the case of power ships, because the speed is maintained regular throughout the day, barring of course bad weather, while the sailing ship has to depend upon wind which blows only intermittently and sometimes in unfavourable direction to the ship. The latter type of ships, therefore, cannot maintain regular daily speed.

These advantages enjoyed by the power-driven ship are therefore absent in the case of the sailing ship. The latter has to depend upon freakish breeze and weather, and although it is admitted that on occasions with very favourable breeze, a sailing ship can make a speed of even 15 knots per hour, the average total speed per day, especially against adverse wind, is very low as we have seen in Chapter II, as compared with that of steamships. This irregularity of speed, irregularities in arrival timings at destination and long delays in deliveries of goods are the greatest handicaps on the sailing ship which can hardly be removed. The same good Nature which in her munificence provides free motive power to sailing ships proves an hindrance to the speed of the ships when she blows adverse winds or is entirely inactive.

Another handicap is that whereas the steamships can lift a large bulk of cargo at a stretch and load and unload it quickly by mechanically-driven equipments, the sailing ships cannot do so, as usually the capacity of the latter is small. Although ships of the schooner type have been built in foreign countries having carrying capacity even up to 9000 tons and equipped with 6 or 7 masts, the usual capacity of sailing ships is smaller than that of steamers. Some of them were also provided with diminutive engines after the invention of steam power; but these engines were used only for working winches so that the cranes could

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work on power. The motive power for propelling the ship had however been that generated by sails all the same. This also proves that where sails are provided instead of power, the question of speed has always to depend on weather. This disadvantage cannot be removed, and therefore the sailing ships will always have much smaller capacity because of their inability to obtain sufficient breeze to move large bulk of big ships loaded with cargo.

Apart from these defects, the sailing ship traffic in India is not at present so propertly and thoroughly organised as was done in foreign countries. When transformation took place in foreign countries from sails to steam, the traffic regulations and other rules concerning the conduct and status of the crew, the master and the shipper, regulations regarding shipping documents, deliveries of cargo, the consignee, etc. were present almost in their present form in the steamship trade. Such routine and regulations had not reached that stage in India even in the past. This shows that the West had made rapid strides in modernising even the sailing ship trade and the conduct of its personnel. The Indian trade is still behind in these improvements, and this is also another handicap on the speedy development of the sailing vessel traffic in India.

However, some of the disadvantages of the steamships become the advantages of sailing ships. As no engines are fitted and since no coal or oil has to be carried, so much space can be utilized for cargo. Such disadvantages as the probable failure of steam or the presence of any hidden defect in the machinery of the steamship may be compared with the tearing of sails or undetected cracks in the hull of a sailing ship which may take in water. Herein the disadvantages may counterbalance and neutralise each other. But the use of natural power freely employed, the larger availability of cargo space for the same tonnage and the low draught which makes it possible for sailing ships to navigate in shallow waters are the principal advantages in their favour as against the speed, efficiency and conse-

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quent economy of the steamship. The country is benefitted to the extent of the use of such natural power by sailing ships, because an important service is rendered to the trade at a comparatively little cost to the country as a whole in the matter of power required for propelling the ships.

Any development of the sailing ship in future must therefore follow the lines which would exploit these advantages to their maximum extent. And the addition of an oil engine to the sailing vessels as an auxiliary power when winds fail, might help to get over the defect of speed.

Further, it is possible to make greater use of the sailing ship for some specialised cargo on some particular routes of traffic. Where the cargo is not required urgently and where there is no regular steamer traffic, and also where the quantities of cargo are so small that they would not warrant the fixture of a steamer, the sailing ship is of great value. The sailing ship is particularly suited for certain types of bulk cargo. And for interport traffic on the coast on some routes, especially in the case of some commodities, the sailing ship can be used with advantage. With increased use of sailing ships under regularised methods of traffic, the volume of traffic itself is likely to increase; because it is well-known that with increase in facilities for transport, the volume of traffic increases.

But all these would require government assistance and encouragement and often government regulations. Merely leaving the trade to private initiative will not do. Government regulation will be necessary in certain matters.

The primary need in this direction will perhaps be the reservation of the coastal trade to purely Indian-owned, and whenever possible, to Indian-built ships. All Indian sailing ships are practically 100% Indian-built, Indian-owned and Indian-managed. If therefore any encouragement in the matter of trade on the coast of India is to be given to any Indian ships, the Indian sailing ships deserve equal consideration with steamship. From the point of view of

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their very construction, ownership, capital invested, labour employed in constructing and running the ships, and from the point of view of management, it is clear that the entire trade of the Indian sailing ships is purely **Indian** in the truest sense of the term. It stands to reason therefore that though we cannot in any way minimize the great benefits of economy in the case of steamships for the future development of India, a respectable, if not a very important, place can be carved out for the sailing ship in that development. Thereby the sailing ship can be put to economical use in a prescribed manner and a place given to it in future, at least for about 50 years more, instead of leaving it neglected as hithertobefore.

The above considerations and our general views and statements made earlier in this book therefore lead us to conclude our survey for future development of the Indian sailing ships on the following lines :—

1. That the coastal trade of India should be reserved for Indian-owned ships of all description.

2. That the stage of tutelage having passed, Indian steamships must now freely enter the field of foreign trade.

It is an international suppression of India when Indian steamships are bound down to the coastal trade only in exchange for some paltry benefits in that trade.

3. That in such a role, Indian goods should be carried to foreign countries in Indian bottoms, and foreign ships coming to India should be treated on strict basis of reciprocity.

4. That it is essential for Indian ships to ply in foreign waters in order to raise the prestige of India in foreign countries.

When in foreign countries, how one yearns for Indian steamers to visit those lands ? How one watches other foreign steamers visiting those places ? How often the writer was himself tormented by these feelings when in Hongkong, Shanghai and other foreign places he used to see the British, French, American, German, Italian, Portuguese and even Panamian and other foreign ships

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visiting those Chinese and other foreign ports? Every time a foreign ship visited those ports, the nationals of that country to which the ship belonged and residing at that port used to congregate on the steamship and hold galla dinners and lunches there. This kept touch with their homeland. They got their home-made articles and provisions and never felt that they were cut off from their homes. They could thus easily carry on and develop the foreign trade of their country by staying abroad for any length of time without feeling separated from their homes. The local people at the ports were further impressed by this exuberance of the national feeling, and when they saw huge steamships like the Round-theh-World Tourers, Empress of Britain (Canadian), Reliance, Scharnhorst etc. (German), President Liners (American), Georges Philippar, Aramis and others (French), Conte Biancamano, Verde, Rosso and Victoria etc. (Italian), visiting the Far Eastern ports, the Chinese and other people in those regions were impressed by the greatness of those countries which could send such large steamships to distant places. And when they read of such superliners like Normandie, Queen Mary and Elizabeth, Rex, Bremen etc., the glory of those countries to whom these ships belong was brought home to such Far Eastern people.

But was the Indian flag ever carried regularly to the foreign countries flying on such big liners and tourers? No. Then to the foreign peoples, India must be a back number industrially and politically. India is in fact considered as a backward country by foreigners.

Is it not then desirable that Indian ships should now visit foreign countries, if necessary, with Government support? This is essential for the fair name of India.

5. That a greater volume of trade would be exchanged between India and South America in postwar period can be foreseen, and Indian steamships can participate in the traffic.

This is a new line, and Indian ships can find good opportunity therein. The West Indies would provide another terminal point for Indian steamers, apart from trade with Europe, North America and the Far East.

6. That when foreign trade avenues are opened for Indian steamships and coastal trade is reserved for Indian ships, any hostility or rivalry between Indian steamships and Indian sailing ships will disappear.

7. That when the coastal trade of India is reserved for the Indian ships, all foreign ships including British, should be allowed to call only at certain "Treaty Ports" as is done in all foreign countries. Such Treaty Ports should be: Karachi, Bombay, Madras and Calcutta. We may add at the most Okha, Bedi, Cochin, Vizagapatam and Chittagong to this list. Further that such foreign ships calling at these ports should unload cargo only from foreign ports. They should not be allowed to load and|or discharge any interport cargo between any of the ports mentioned above, nor between any other ports, nor between the Treaty Ports and other ports on the coast. They should load only for foreign ports.

8. That in such a regime, interport trade between minor ports, and between major ports and minor ports on the coast should be left entirely to sailing vessels which may include sailing ships with auxiliary engines.

9. That until such reservation of the coast of India is accomplished, a division of traffic between the steamships and sailing ships may be made on a small scale within the scope of the present circumstances. This division should be brought about on an equitable basis without hampering steamship traffic.

That is to say, cargo trade between any two ports from amongst the major ports on the coast of India like Karachi, Okha, Bedi, Bombay, Marmagoa, Cochin, Alleppey, Tuticorin, Madras, Cocoanada, Vizagapatam, Calcutta, and Chittagong should be reserved entirely for steamships, and all other interport trade amongst all minor ports themselves, and between the above major ports and minor ports,

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and trade in the creeks should be reserved for sailing ships. Ferry steamers, may, however, operate on the coast for passenger traffic from such minor ports. And such ferry steamers should be allowed to lift only perishable cargo from such minor ports that may be available at those ports reserved for sailing ships.

10. Besides this, certain commodities should also be reserved for carriage by sailing ships.

Already such items like bricks, tiles, sand, salt and to some extent some kind of timber are carried by sailing ships. To this should be added the entire quantity of salt from Bombay to Marmagoa and Malabar; cotton-seeds from Central Provinces and Khandesh to Kathiawar by rail-cum-sea route via Bombay or Surat instead of by all rail route; all cotton seeds from Karachi to Kathiawar; all timber from Malabar to Bombay, Kathiawar and Karachi in the north and to southern ports; a certain portion of all petroleum and petroleum products; all oil and ghee in tins and|or in drums not exceeding 200 lbs. capacity; a certain percentage of cotton from Karachi to Kathiawar and Gujerat via Bedi, Navlakhi and Bhavnagar; a certain percentage of cotton from Karachi to Bombay; a certain percentage of cotton from Gujerat to Bombay; a certain percentage of foodgrains like wheat from Karachi to Bombay; groundnuts from Kathiawar to Bombay or Karachi; kaju nuts from Konkan, Malabar and Marmagoa; mangoes from Konkan to Bombay; cement from Kathiawar and Karachi; all scrap iron and sundry hardware excluding machinery and heavy lifts; all foodgrains from Bombay to Konkan ports; certain percentage of foodgrains, oil and ghee from Kathiawar to Bombay; a certain percentage of coir, coir ropes and coir-matting and all bamboos and bamboo products from Malabar; all coal via Bombay to Kathiawar ports whenever required by rail-cum-sea service—all these should be reserved for carriage by sailing ships. At present, these are already being carried partly by steamers and partly by sailing ships. But at least a major portion of traffic in these lines should be reserved for sailing vessels as soon as possible, and the same should be continued in peacetimes.

11. That the west coast should be divided into certain routes and zones as mentioned in Chapter VIII under "Traffic and Traffic Routes" into which there is a natural flow of certain kind of traffic which is carried on by the sailing ships coming from different localities. And a shipping agent should be appointed for each route to handle the traffic.

For instance, the Malabar ships operate only from Malabar to Bombay in the north and not beyond. Therefore one division should be Malabar-Bombay. They operate in the south up to Tuticorin and Colombo in normal times. Therefore another division should be between Malabar and Tuticorin-Colombo. Like that Karachi-Kathiawar, Karachi-Gujerat, Bombay-Karachi, Bombay-Marmagoa, and Kathiawar and Gujerat-Malabar routes should be established. These are mentioned in detail in chapters VIII and X along with the cargo carried on those routes.

It is therefore easy to follow this natural arrangement of routes to which the sailing ships have got accustomed and have practically specialised in such route traffic.

12. That the appointment of shipping agents for the transportation of the government and military cargo within each of these routes should be made by calling tenders in the month of June from reliable shipping firms of good financial standing and prestige.

13. That such tenderer should be given an approximate idea of cargo to be carried in the shipping season and the tenderers should be asked to quote lowest rates for the four periods of the season, that is (1) September-October-November, (2) December-January-February, (3) March-April, and (4) May.

14. That the rates accepted out of those tendered by various shipping agents should apply only to government and military cargo, the rates for public cargo being left alone.

15. That the public cargo on each route may be

allowed to move freely as it liked. The shipping agent for the route should not interfere with it. But if any merchant wants the shipping agent to carry his cargo on the route, the rate charged by the agent should be the same as that charged for the government and military cargo on the same route.

16. On occasions when ships from one route are required in unusual circumstances for traffic in any adjoining routes, they should not be asked to run beyond a radius of 700 miles, and never against the wishes of the crew of the ship.

17. That no efforts to fix rates or to requisition ships should be made as far as possible as both are likely to prove unworkable in practice. Attempt at requisitioning ships on the coast would lead to discontent and endless trouble.

18. That a coordination amongst the different routes and shipping agents should be arrived at by creating a Standing Committee localised in Bombay, composed of one representative of each of the Shipping Agents for the various routes, two Government Officials representing the Shipping Controller and Country Craft Organisation Officer and presided over by a permanent officer specially selected from amongst the business circles and having intimate experience primarily of sailing ship traffic and also if possible of steamship traffic.

19. That this Committee should settle all points of difference as they arise, between different shipping agents, make regulations for proper conduct of the traffic in each route, fix modes of operation for ships going from one route to another, transfer if absolutely necessary excess ships from one route to another whenever possible if the ship's crew agree to do so with special inducements; consider the periodical changes in the rates of freight for each route and each commodity and recommend same to the Departments concerned for revision. Besides, the Committee should also exercise such other functions as would be necessary for the proper development of the export

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and import of cargo by sailing ships. That is to say, actual shipping and deliveries of cargo should be the primary function of this Committee.

20. That the Shipping Controller should be more concerned with the general conditions of shipping all over the coast of India, the regulation and division of traffic between steamers and sailing ships, protection of cargo at sea so as to prevent jettisons, modification of Port and Customs regulations whenever they may inflict severe hardships and long delays to ships, regulations regarding detention and despatch of ships, regulations regarding the crew, tindels and shipowners and their mutual relationship, registration of ships at various ports, periodical surveys and licensing, and such other general regulations and controls which refer rather to general conditions of shipping and crew than actual carriage of cargo by sailing ships.

21. That the name of the Country Craft Organisation Officer should be changed to "Sailing Ships Information Officer", as the organisation of trade is now nearly complete, and the office of a Shipping Controller is already created.

The "Sailing Ships Information Officer" should collect all available information about the traffic available at each port, the parties interested therein, ships available at each port, preparation of lists of shipowners at each place, information about new construction; chartering rates prevailing at different centres, government and public contracts open for allotment, propaganda for employment of sailing ships for the transportation of public cargo, supplying all the particulars to the prospective shippers and importers about shipping and importing certain goods to and from certain ports by sailing ships, checking up rates quoted by tenderers to the various government departments and advising the latter thereon, calling for tenders some time in June every year for the different routes and recommending selection of agents by the Government of India for the next season; making suggestions for improvement of the sailing vessel traffic, and generally

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supplying all information to the government, the public and shipping agents about the sailing vessels trade on the coast of India.

22. That the functions should in this way be properly divided amongst the Shipping Controller, the Information Officer and the Standing Committee for Shipping.

The Shipping Controller looks after the general shipping conditions and government regulations as would facilitate the traffic on the entire coast; the Information Officer supplies all the relative information about sailing ships to all concerned, undertakes propaganda on behalf of the government and considers rates tendered for the transportation of cargo and the appointment of Agents; and, the Shipping Committee would concern itself with actual carriage of cargo and related matters.

The Shipping Controller should continue to remain under the Commerce Department as at present so as to ensure uniformity with general trade and commerce of the country. He may exercise formal supervision over the sailing vessel traffic. But the general routine and details of work to be performed by the Sailing Ships Information Officer and the Shipping Committee should be left to themselves. And the Information Officer and the Shipping Committee should be directly under the War Transport Department for all practical purposes during the duration of the war. After the war, these offices may pass under the Commerce Department or under the Communications Department if such a Department is started in the postwar period. The last two offices need special expense and attention which the War Transport Department alone can afford to devote in the present circumstances. Besides, since all the railways are under the latter Department and since sailing vessels are mainly used for rail-cum-sea traffic, it is reasonable that the offices mentioned above should be under the War Transport Department.

23. That schools and training ships for cadets to be trained for the sailing ships should be established, one in Kathiawar preferably at Salaya, another at Janjira

south of Bombay, and one more in Malabar preferably at Calicut. There is already one at Nhova in the Bombay Harbour founded by Sir Mohamud Yusuf Ismail, Kt. to teach seamanship and navigation to boys and orphans of Indian seamen, and run by the Trustees of Sir Mohamud Yusuf Family Trust.

24. That Shipwright Training Schools should similarly be established one for Malabar at Calicut (Beypore) or Kasaragod, one for Konkan at Malwan, one for Bombay at Bassein or Thana, one for Gujerat at Bilimora, two for Kathiawar at Salaya and Bhavnagar or Porbandar, one for Sind at Karachi and one for southwest India at Tuticorin. Similar schools can be established on the east coast. Government workshops where actual shipbuilding is done should be attached to such schools.

At a later stage when India embarks upon a full-fledged program of steamship construction, the same schools and workshops would be useful as nucleus for shipbuilding yards for steamship construction.

At least the one at Salaya is bound to develop into a big steamshipbuilding yard, where every necessary facility for shipbuilding yard and its allied and subsidiary industries and workshops is available. Recently an authoritative survey conducted by competent experts confirmed the opinion that Salaya is one of the most suitable sites on the West Coast of India for Naval expansion. This in itself is sufficient to commend Salaya as the most suitable site for ship construction on the west coast. Plenty of land, water and labour are available in the vicinity for the purpose, even including those required for subsidiary industries.

25. That active assistance should be given by the Government for the establishmen of sailing ship.. mariners (crew) associations and shipowners associations.*

26. That periodical surveys of ships should be made, and certificates of seaworthiness issued every two years

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* One shipowners' association has already come into existence and another one is also established which admits shipowners, shipping agents, brokers and tindels as members. K.B.V.

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before the beginning of the season. Further the ships should be given loadline.

27. That tests slightly less in severity and curriculum than those imposed for the coastal steamship masters, should be introduced for the tindels of sea-going sailing ships exceeding 30 tons in capacity.

28. That the crew employed should not be below the age of 16 and must have at least two years experience at sea.

29. That the standard of minimum wages of the tindels and the crew should be fixed by government regulations, if necessary according to the capacity of the ships and general price index. Dearness allowances should be allowed according to the rise or fall in price indices.

30. That determined attempts should be made to fit auxiliary engines to sailing ships, and for that purpose necessary changes may be made in the construction of the ships. Such auxiliary engines should be used only when there is either no breeze or when there is adverse breeze. Thus this artificial motive power will not supplant the natural power of the wind which is obtained without any cost to the ship resulting in a great national saving in fuels.

31. That until India develops heavy industries and is able to supply its own steel for construction of steamships and is able to manufacture its own machinery for same, greater use of sailing vessels with auxiliary engines should be made for coastal traffic, because all materials for sailing ships including auxiliary oil engines are manufactured in India. By this way so much export of capital to foreign countries for acquiring steamers will be saved to India.

When India is able to supply most of the materials for construction and repairs of steamers, the question of replacing whenever possible, the sailing vessels in the coastal traffic by building steamships in Indian yards mainly out of Indian materials may be taken for consideration. It does not stand to reason that large capital should flow out of India just to acquire steamers for coastal traffic only on any large scale, when sailing ships can perform the function on the short distance routes, with the aid of auxiliary engines to an appreciable extent. Steamships can be employed on long distance voyages as between the major ports on the coast mentioned above.

In the meantime, greater use of as many steamers as can be purchased in foreign countries should be made for foreign trade of India, if necessary, with government assistance. This development is essential for India's industrial advance and political prestige abroad.

32. That the sea-cum-rail transport system instead of all-rail transport should be normalised and the sailing ships may be given preference on certain routes for certain cargoes.

33. That on all new sea routes of short distances, such as for shuttle services etc., sailing ships should be employed, at least in the initial stages where steamers will not be economical. When fully developed, steamship may replace sailing ships if found economical.

34. That greater use of sailing ships with auxiliary engines may be made in the traffic to East African ports and islands off that coast, Arabia, Persian Gulf ports, and to some Egyptian ports. For that purpose attempts may be made to increase the volume of trade with those countries. These places have been frequented by the Indian sailing ships from times immemorial.

35. That the Government should assist Insurance Companies to form an Association of their own for sailing ship insurance so that reinsurance arrangements for the hulls of the sailing ships and cargo carried by them can be effectively accomplished.

36. That the Government should encourage Insurance Companies to accept insurance on the hull and other parts of the ships on the W.P.A. basis as in the case of steamships.

The W.P.A. basis should also be introduced in the case of cargo carried by sailing ships as well.

37. That in the initial stages, say, for the first 15 years, Government should accept responsibility for risks

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covered by W. P. A. Policy, both in the case of Hull Policy as well as Cargo Policy, whereby Government should accept reinsurance from such Companies for about 67% of the value.

38. That such W. P. A. risks should be from warehouse to warehouse and should cover transhipment of cargo from one ship to another involving landing on shore.

As we have seen before, according to the present practice of the insurance companies, the risk on cargo carried in a sailing ship ceases as soon as the cargo is landed on shore or is transhipped to another ship. In fact the moment the cargo is hoisted out of the ship, and it actually leaves the ship's tackles the risk ceases. And even if a ship were to discharge the insured cargo into a lighter or a machwa (padav) in midstream for taking such cargo to the shore, the risk on the cargo ceases as soon as such cargo leaves the ship's side to be discharged into lighters or machwas.

This is a great handicap on the development of the sailing vessels traffic and does not make insurance very attractive.

These conditions must be remedied, and "warehouse to warehouse" risk should be accepted by Insurance Companies with the support of the government, including the continuance of the risk in the course of transhipment and thereafter up to the destination.

39. That the policies on hull should cover risk of damage or total loss suffered even when in port.

At present Insurance Companies do not cover loss of this nature.

40. That government patrol boats be employed on the coast to assist ships in trouble at sea. They will also be useful to inform by wireless the owners and insurance companies of any mishaps to ships and conditions of weather.

At present, sailing ship tindels, not being provided with wireless sets, have no means of communicating to their owners the development of any trouble to

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their ships in the course of the voyage at sea. The tindels can do so only after the accident has actually occurred. He goes to the nearest port having Telegraph Office and then telegraphs to the owner who in turn informs the shippers about the mishap. The shippers in their turn inform the insurance companies. This means delay, and there is no time left for the insurance companies and the owners to give help to the ship in time and try to save the ship from total loss or to salvage the cargo. This situation has to be remedied, and patrols would go a long way in this direction.

41. That government should adopt a determined policy for the encouragement and regulation of the sailing vessel traffic instead of leaving it to take care of itself. The present policy of "experiments" must cease forthwith. This traffic must not be considered merely as a wartime job. If properly developed it will come very handy in times of emergency.

42. That the west coast and the east coast traffic should be coordinated, and uniform system and regulations may be adopted for the entire coast of India. This is a natural corollary from the very designation of the Controller of Indian Shipping.

43. That a Committee should be appointed immediately to investigate into the whole problem on the lines of the conclusions arrived at and suggestions made therein, and its report be asked for before the end of September or latest of October, 1944, so that its recommendations may be put into operation for the next season (1944-45).

These are among others some of the conclusions that we have arrived at. They can be taken aa our suggestions. They are not made merely to serve the wartime needs. Nor do they exhaust the list. Most of them are made with an eye to the future, both with a view to have a developed trade by sailing ships in times of any other emergency in future and to afford greater employment for Indian capital and Indian labour. There are vast resources of materials like fine timber in India needed for the construction of such ships and these can be usefully employed for building ships. Gradual development may be made in several directions and the suggestions made herein may be adopted slowly after properly putting them to test.

Our main aim in making these recommendations is that the sailing vessel traffic should not be considered only as a wartime concern of the government and the public. It should remain at all times in a properly developed state to be of use in times of emergency and for the general economic development of India. The enormity of the business and some useful avenues of employment that it may open up in future should be given greater and respectful consideration, rather than relegating the sailing vessel traffic to the private initiative of illiterate men and stigmatizing the Indian sailing vessels by the contemptuous term "Country Craft". What we want is an organised Sailing Vessel traffic in a progressive manner on a properly constituted basis, in such a way that without hampering the development of Indian steamships in the coastal and foreign trade of India, the sailing vessel can secure a permanent and a dignified place in the coastal trade as well as in the foreign trade of India to nearby countries.

APPENDIX A.

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Some Shipping Terms With Special Reference to Sailing Vessels.

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(Almost all the terms are taken from A. Ansted's "**Dictionary of Sea Terms**" published by Brown, Son & Ferguson, Ltd., Nautical Publishers, 52 to 58 Darnley Street, Glasgow, and are published here with compliments to the Author and Publishers thereof.)

In some places, some wording is changed here and there to suit the modern conditions and with a view to abridge the interpretation. In some cases, full explanation of the terms is not reproduced in the interest of brevity.

It is recommended that this valuable Dictionary which is profusely illustrated be consulted by those interested for the fuller explanation of the terms reproduced here, and for many more contained in the Dictionary.

Some equivalent Gujerati (Guj.) and Marathi (Mar.) words are given in brackets at the end of some of the words. Similar vernacular words exist in other Indian languages, but are not given here as the author could not easily obtain any dictionary or other publication or information of this nature in those languages. But it is essential to publish the necessary phraseology in all the other Indian languages if such publication does not exist already, such as, in Kanarese, Malayalam, Tamil, Telugu, Bengali and Urdu. This will be useful when even building of steamships would be a general feature of the Indian Shipping—K.B.V.)

Aft—Behind, towards the after or stern part of a vessel, or it may mean behind the vessel itself. (Guj, "Pachhalo Moro"; Mar: "Vara").

Amidships.—Generally speaking the middle portion of a vessel. The point of intersection of two lines, one drawn from stem to stern, the other across the beam (or widst part), will be the actual midships.

To weigh anchor.—To get the anchor up preparatory to getting under sail. (Guj: Habbesh Langar, Mar: Habesh Nangar).

Awning.—A canvas covering acting as a roof or tent.

Ballast.—Weight deposited in a ship's hold when she has no cargo, or too little cargo to bring her sufficiently low in the water. (Guj: Niram; Mar: Nirim).

Barge.—A general name given to flat-bottomed craft. (Guj: & Mar: Machwa).

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Bark, Barkentine.—Bark—Generally speaking a three-masted vessel square-rigged on the fore and main masts and "fore-and-aft" rigged on the mizzen. Barkentine is a smaller ship of the same description as the bark (or barque).

Beak, beak-head.—The beak is the extreme fore-part of a vessel. The beak-head, in large vessels with figure-heads, is the small platform between the figure-head and the bulwarks of the forecastle. It is secluded from the view of the deck and contains the latrines of the crew. This will be recognized on old ships. (Guj: Mora; Mar: Bhurda).

Beam.—The width of a vessel at her widest part. The term is derived from the beams, strong timbers extending across the ship, supporting the decks and strengthening the sides, and the widest of these will, of course, be the width of the vessel inside. (Mar: Ada; Guj: Ado).

Berth.—On shipboard, a cabin. A ship's berth is the place in which she lies or is anchored. (Guj: Foordo; Mar: Bunder).

Bilge.—The bilge is the lower part of a vessel upon which she rests when aground.

Bilge water.—Water that collects in the bottom of a vessel. (Guj: Ghamat; Mar: Gamat).

Bill of Health.—A certificate or instrument, signed by proper authorities, delivered to the masters of ships at the time of their clearing out from all ports or places suspected of being infected by particular disorders, certifying the stage of health at the time that such ship sailed.

Bill of Lading.—A document subscribed by the master of a ship or by agents or owners on his behalf, acknowledging the receipt of goods on board his ship entrusted to him for transportation, and binding himself (under certain exceptions) to deliver them to the person to whom they are consigned for a certain remuneration or freightage. (Guj: Noor Chithi: Mar: Nor Chithi).

Blockade.—In international law, a prevention of exit or entrance from or to any port of an enemy in war, and an exclusion (under certain terms) of neutrals.

Board.—An expression signifying the side of a ship. (Guj: Patiun; Mar: Baju).

Bottom.—Of a ship, that part of her which is under water line. As used by commercial men, the term sometimes refers to the ship itself, as for instance, in the phrase, "a trade in foreign bottoms". (Guj: Taliun; Mar: Tul).

Bottomry.—A term in commercial law referring to the letting or mortgaging of ships.

Bow.—(Bows of a ship)—The sides at the fore-part of a vessel, distinguished one from the other by the right and left hand, the first being the starboard-bow, the second port-bow. (Guj: Moro; Mar: Khanda).

Bow-sprit.—One of the main spars in a vessel, "sprit" projecting forward from the stem and taking the forestays and bobstays. Its office is to enable a vessel to carry an increased spread of canvas in the form of head-sails, and to furnish a forward support to the top-mast. (Guj: Ghor; Mar: Ghose).

Breakwater.—An artificial bank or wall of any material, set up either outside a harbour or along a coast to break the violence of the sea and create a smooth shelter. (Guj: Fudado).

Brig.—A vessel with two masts both of them square rigged but having a graff mainsail.

Brigantine.—(A small or lesser brig)—A vessel with two masts (fore and main), the foremast being rigged with square fore course, and the main mast schooner riggid. The rig, however, may vary slightly.

Buccaneer.—A pirate of the West Indies and South America during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; they are sometimes called filibustiers by the French writers.

Bulk.—Cargo or loose material. (Guj: Chhul Palo; Mar: Makala Mal).

Laden in bulk.—A vessel loaded with loose cargo, as grain, ice, salt, etc.

Bulkheads.—Partitions made of wood, iron or canvas. They divide a vessel's holds into watertight compartments.

Bulwark.—A parapet round the deck of a vessel to protect persons or goods from being washed overboard, and to protect the decks from the sea (Guj: Kathado; Mar: Bodad).

Bunk.—A bed on board ship. (Guj: Jabutaro; Mar: Palangdi).

Burden.—The capacity of a vessel, as 100 tons burden, etc. (Guj: Bharati; Mar: Bharati).

Cabin.—A habitable apartment on ship-board.

Cable.—The rope or chain by which a ship's anchor is held. (Guj: Wal; Mar: Alat).

Cadet.—(Naval).—A youth who, having been duly nominated to the Navy holds a preparatory appointment thereto.

Canoe.—The native American name for a boat made out of a single trunk of a tree; but as understood in England the term means any boat propelled by paddles, of which there are various sorts.

Caulking.—The operations performed upon wooden vessels to prevent leakage, and to assist the fixing of whole frame of the hull. It consists of stuffing the seams (the spaces between the planks), with oakum, and then paying them with hot pitch. (Guj: Kalfat; Mar: Kalpat).

Chart.—Roughly speaking, a map of the sea bottom and coast projections, for the use of navigators.

Charter-party.—A contract in mercantile law between the owner of a ship and one who hires the whole of it under specified conditions; (Guj: Kabala; Mar: Kabala).

Coble.—An open boat varying in form according to locality.

Cock-pit.—In sailing boats, the open space in the deck. The word "well" is also more frequently used.

Code Signals.—A collection of signs or symbols reduced to an orderly arrangement and made use of by vessels at sea or from stations ashore.

Compass.—An instrument which, by means of a magnetised bar, indicates the magnetic meridian. The disc or face of the mariner's compass consists of a circular card, sometimes transparent, the circumference of which is divided into 32 parts, called points. These points may be again divided into two, each division being a half-point, and these again into quarter points. Thus there are 32 points in the compass, and between each are half and quarter points. Each point is named and marked on the card with the initial letters of its name, as N, for the North, N. by E. for the North by East, N.N.E. for North, North-East, N.E. for North East, and so on.

The cardinal points are North, South, East, and West. These cut the card into four quarters, and each quarter is divided into eight points. (Guj: Hoko; Mar: Hokayantra).

Coxswain.—(pronounced "Cox'un")—The steersman of a boat (Guj: Sukani; Mar: Sukani).

Craft.—A general term applied by sea-faring men to any collection of small, undecked or decked, vessels. Though the term is properly speaking one of multitude, it is often used in the singular number even to signify more number of craft than one. Thus "river craft" means those vessels, generally, which nagivate a river, while the phrase "a nice little craft" is spoken in admiration of a single boat. (Guj: Vahan; Mar: Galbat).

Currents.—Running movements in waters, often partially independent of the tides. There are currents along every coast

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and in every river.

Deck.—Generally speaking the covering on the interior of a ship, either carried completely over her or only over a portion, Large ships and steam vessels may have various decks. (Guj: Tootak; Mar: Mala).

Derrick.—Generally speaking, a crane consisting mainly of one large beam, the foot of which rests either upon the ground or at the lower portion of the mast. (Guj: Gatri; Mar: Yari.).

Dhow.—A long flat Arab vessel.

Dinghy.—A small open boat, usually attached to a yacht, and useful for all general purposes.

Displacement.—The weight of water displaced by any vessel. The word was, at one time, made use of in defining the carrying capacity of ships.

Distress.—In want of assistance. In small craft a signal of distress is made by hoisting a ball, or anything like ball, in place of a flag, or by flying the ensign upside down. At night signal must be made by rockets or fires.

Dock.—An artificially constructed basin for reception of vessels. It may be either a wet dock, in which ships are unloaded, or a dry dock, in which they are either built or repaired. (Guj: Foordo; Mar: Godi).

Dockyard.—An enclosed area in which the work connected with the building or fitting out of ships is carried on. (Guj: Godi Bunder; Mar: Godi Bunder).

Draught.—The draught of a vessel, or in other words, the depth of water she draws, is the vertical depth of the immersed part of her; that is, the distance of the lowest point of her keel (or any other specified point) from the surface of the water.

Dredge.—(often pronounced "drudge") A dredge or dredger is a machine for clearing or deepening rivers, canals, harbours, etc.

Dress.—(a ship)—To deck her out with colours (flags).

Dunnage.—"The name applied to loose wood mats or rubbish placed at the bottom of the hold to raise the cargo either for purposes of ballast, or to keep it dry". (Guj: Pathar; Mar: Patar).

Ebb.—The reflux of the tide. (Guj: Oat; Mar: Ohut).

Even keel.—A boat is said to be on an even keel when she lies evenly in a fore-and-aft direction (i.e. in the direction of the keel). She is also sometimes erroneously so described especially with rowers, when she is upright in the water, canting neither to right nor to left.

Ferry.—Passage across a river or harbours. Ferry-boat is a boat that maintains such service mainly for conveying passengers across a river or on the other side of a harbour.

Flag.—A flag has been defined as banner indicating nationality, occupation, or intelligence. (Guj: Vavto; Mar: Bawata).

Flush-deck.—The deck running from stem to stern without the interruption of forecastle, booby hatch, or other cabin head.

Fore.—Forepart of a vessel, Forward. (Guj: Moro; Mar: Nal).

Fore-and-aft.—The term much used in respect of sailing ships; for it describes one of the only two manners in which sails can be applied to a vessel. The meaning of the term "fore-and-aft" is, in the direction of a line drawn from stem to stern of a vessel; that is from the forward or fore to the after or aft part; and such sails, yards, and spars as are set in this direction constitute that which, among sea-faring men, is known as fore-and-aft rig. Such sails as yachts and sailing boats carry are fore-and-aft sails, and such as are set in a direction across the ship are called square sails, constituting the square rigs of most merchantmen.

Forecastle.— (pronounced fokes'l)—Properly speaking, the forward deck, which is often raised above the main deck; hence its name. The space beneath it is the cabin of the crew; and this is popularly called the forecastle. (Guj: Fani; Mar: Bhurda).

Foremast.—Generally the mast nearest the bow of a vessel. (Guj: Khuvo; Mar: Dolkathi).

Founder.—To fill with water and sink.

Freeboard.—That portion of the vessel's side which is "free" of water; that is, which is not submerged. Its extent is measured from the load water line to the deck where the distance is shortest (Guj: Dhrabo: Mar: Draba).

Freight.—The sum of money paid for the hire of a vessel or part of her is her freightage. Hence that which she carries has come to be regarded as her freight. (Guj: Noor; Mar: Nor).

Fresh.—Fresh breeze or fresh gale. That which on shore might be called a high wind. Thus the wind may be said to be blowing fresh.

Frigate.—In the modern meaning a full-rigged ship.

Full-rigged ship; ship; or frigate.—A ship having three masts with their full complement of sails; or, in other words, having royal, masts. Until the introduction of four-masted sailing ships, the "ship" had all the masts, sails, spars, etc. that it was possible to carry. In modern times the name "Frigate" has been given to these ships.

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Gear.—A general term which may mean rigging, tackle, ropes, belonging to a spar or sail, or indeed any part of the working apparatus of a vessel. (Guj: Alat; Mar: Alat).

Grommet.—(pronounced "grummet"). A ring or loop at the end of a rope.

Hatch, hatchway.—A hatchway is an opening in the deck of a vessel through which persons or cargo may descend; it is covered by a movable frame or roof, called a hatch (Guj: Dhooro; Mar: Falka).

Haul.—To pull upon a rope.

Heave.—To pull on a rope or cable with **mechanical** aid, and therefore to be distinguished from "hauling"; to draw anything up. (Guj: Mar: Habesh).

Helm.—The helm is the steering apparatus of the ship, i.e. the rudder, with its operative part the tiller or handle (sometimes called the helmstock. (Guj: Sukan. Mar: Sukanu).

. . **Hoist.**—To elevate, to haul aloft, with or without the assistance of tackles.

Hold—The inner space of a vessel in which the cargo is stowed. (Guj: Dhooro; Mar: Palat).

House flag—A square flag displaying the device and colours adopted by any mercantile shipping company.

Hove.—Past tense of Heave, Thus we may say "we hove to during the squall".

Hoy.—A hoy, before the era of steam vessels, was a boat acting somewhat in the same manner as to tenders to-day; they carried goods and passengers to and from the larger vessels; but they also sailed coastwise over short distances.

Hull, or hulk.—The hull is the body of the vessel, exclusive of her masts, etc. The word hulk is more generally applied to old vessels, or at least to those that are not send to sea. (Guj: 'Khoku', Mar: Katapara).

Jack-ass rig.—The name sometimes given to the ordinary form of three masted schooner which sets square topsails on the foremast.

Jettison.—To jettison is to cast goods overboard, whether to lighten or to get a vessel upon an even keel when aground or in distress at sea, and thus aid in floating her, so that she may sail more easily when in distress. (Guj: Vamani; Mar: Vahani).

Jetty.—A small pier or landing place.

Jib.—One of the head sails in a sailing vessel—triangular in shape. (Guj: Kataro; Mar: Jibhali).

CSL

Jobboon or Jibboon.—A spar running out beyond the bowsprit for the flying jib. (Guj: Teer; Mar: Boam).

Junk.—A sailing ship common in China and Japan. It has a very high stern which accommodates cargo or provides passenger cabins, and a very low forehead.

Keel.—The keel is the principal timber in any vessel, resembling the backbone of the human frame, while the side timbers constitute her ribs. It is the foundation of the entire structure, and must be of the best material. (Guj:"Pathan";Mar: "Malaki").

Keelson.—(pronounced and sometimes written as kelson). An addition to the keel inside the boat. It rests upon the keel and is an indispensable member, taking the stepping of the mast. It also serves to secure the feet of the timbers (ribs) on each side of it. (Guj: Batan; Mar: Rangas).

Ketch.—A trading vessel with two masts, main and mizzen.

Knot.—Now means a nautical mile. It is a measure of speed. The name is derived from the knots formerly tied in the log line to determine a ship's speed. These knots were tied at a distance of 47.42 ft. apart from each other. A nautical mile is equal to 2,025 yards (ordinary land mile being 1760 yards).

Latitude.—Distance north or south of the Equator, expressed in degrees. (Guj: Araj; Mar: Akshansh).

Launch.—Is a small vessel propelled by some motor, and generally used in harbour or river service, or for pleasure.

Lay.—To rest quiet.

Lay-day.—The day by which a cargo must be shipped or discharged "and if not done within the term, fair weather permitting, the vessel comes out on demurrage",—i.e. compensation may be claimed by the shipowner or charterer for delay.

Lead.—(For sounding, commonly called the lead and line). A leaden weight attached to the end of a line (rope or wire rope) and used to ascertain the depth of water beneath a vessel and the nature of the soil. (Guj: Boodad; Mar: Purum).

(Guj: Boodad; Mar: Purum).

Leak.—Any split, hole, or fissure in the hull of a vessel which allows water to enter. (Guj: Gabdo; Mar: Gabhda).

Lee and Leeward (pronounced Loo-ard or Lew-ard).—The lee side of a vessel is the side upon which the wind does not blow; the other side being called the windward or weather side. Leeward means "on the lee-side", thus a vessel to lee-ward would be seen over the leeside. (Guj: Oath; Mar: Daman Wara).

Leech.—(meaning "lee-edge").—The aftermost (back most) or lee margin of a sail.

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Life-buoy.—Life-belt, life-jacket.—Any apparatus which is sufficiently buoyant to support a man in the water may be called a life-buoy, belt or jacket.

Light.—A vessel is said to be "light" when she is without cargo, and consequently high out of water.

Limbers.—Gutters along keelson which receive bilge. (Guj: Nar).

Lighter.—A powerful hull or barge, flat bottomed, for transporting heavy goods ashore or up rivers.

List.—(Sometimes pronounced by the fishermen "lust")—An inclination. (Guj: Namut; Mar: Bordi).

Lloyd's.—The well-known institution called Lloyd's has been in existence since the year 1716. Its name is derived from a coffee house kept by one Lloyd, to which all interested in shipping matters resorted. From thence it was removed and eventually located in the New Royal Exchange. Besides undertaking all matters of insurance through its members, it publishes periodically, a voluminous inventory of shipping intelligence, known as Lloyd's List or Register, the importance of which, in the mercantile world, cannot be over-rated. For a short history of Lloyd's, see Lloyd's "Seamen's Almanac, 1897".

Load line or Load Water Line.—is the supposed line of deepest immersion i.e. when loaded. It is in fact the ship's proper displacement. (Guj: Bharati Sapan; Mar: Bhurtad).

Log.—The instrument used to measure the rate of a vessel's velocity through the water. The most primitive manner of calculating this velocity appears to have been for a person to heave the log over the bow of the vessel, and to run with it until he reached the poop, the speed at which he ran forming the basis upon which the ship's speed was reckoned; and it is said that wonderfully accurate results were obtained by this rough method. (Guj: and Mar: Mapghodi).

Log Book.—The ship's journal. Everything inculding the distance the ship has made, her position and anything which may have happened on board, is entered therein. For a person to be entered in the log book is called being "logged", and, if for offence, is a serious matter. (Guj: Ghodi-book; Mar: Galbat-Patruck).

Longitude.—Distance east or west of a first meridian, expressed in degrees. The British first meridian is that which passes through Greenwich. (Guj: Tul; Mar: Rekhansh).

Look-out.—The attention of a steersman, in whatsoever craft should never, under any circumstances, be taken off his work.

CSL

Lug —Lug sail.—A four-sided sail, bent to a yard, and slung to the mast in a fore-and-aft position, it is a sail common in boats, and by far the best with which to provide a beginner.

Lugger.—A boat rigged with lug sails.

Lifeboat.—is the one which is about 30ft. long with 8 ft. beam, nearly flatbottomed and weighted with a heavy keel. It is propelled by eight or twelve oars, rowed double-banked; but is also rigged with two masts carrying working-lug and mizzen and fore-sails. The bow and stern rise about 2 ft. above main portion, forming air-tight chambers; compartments also run all round just beolw the gunwales. The boat has a false bottom raised above the waterline, the space between this and the bottom being packed with cork; and through this space run several valves, being open tubes through which, should a sea fill the boat, her false bottom being above water line, the water is immediately discharged. Thus the boat is unsinkable and almost uncapsizable; and should she capsize must quickly right herself. An efficient lifeboat is held capable of carrying one adult person to every 10 cubic feet of capacity, to which capacity she must also have 1½ ft. of air-tight compartments.

Main.—In all rigs of vessels the word main applies alike to the principal mast and the principal sail it carries. In a ship we find the main mast rigged with the main shrouds, main stays, main halyards, etc. and carrying the main sail (called the main course), which is bent to the main yard. Above this rises the main-top-mast, with the main-top-sail, the main-top-gallant mast with the main-top-gallant sail, and the main-royal mast with the main-royal and sky sails.

Main and foresail rig.—This term is employed for want of a better one. Its meaning will be obvious; a boat is rigged with a large main sail and foresail, or possibly with a jib.

Main and Mizzen rig.—Is a rig which consists of a mainsail, which may be a balance lug and a mizzen, with or without the addition of a foresail. (Guj: Kalami-Alat; Mar: Kalabi-Alat).

Manifest.—This is a statement of particulars of cargo loaded on a ship at any port, together with the names of the ship and the captain, the port at which cargo is loaded and the port for which it is loaded, names of shippers and consignees, also port of register of the vessel and its tonnage. Manifest should be completed at the port of loading.

Mariner.—In ancient times, a first slass, or able-bodied seaman. (Guj. & Mar: Khalasi.)

Mast.—A long piece, or system or pieces of timber, placed nearly perpendicularly to the keelson of a vessel to support the yards, or gaffs on which the sails are extended. A mast is said, when set up, to be stepped, because its foot is fitted into a step or chock, the office of which is to distribute the weight of the mast over as great a part of the keelson as may be possible. It is held upright to the level of the deck by a frame work called the mast case; and is further strengthened on the deck, by a frame called partners. The lower portion of the mast is usually square, this part being called the housing, because it is housed or enclosed in the mast case. (Guj: Khuwo; Mar: Dolkathi).

Masts are variously named, according to the rig of the vessel: In a full-rigged ship the masts are three in number, viz. the main, the fore and the mizzen, the main being in the centre and the mizzen aft (Guj: Kalami; Mar:: Kalabi); and as the ship appears to be the standard by which other vessels are compared, it would seem to follow that all vessels are, more or less, but modifications of it. (After Mast behind Mizzen Mast, is called in Gujarati: Ghoosi and in Marathi: Porga).

Masts and other spars are sometimes seen to be apparently cracked along (or between) the fibres; but this, though defective, does not materially affect their elasticity. Large knots on the other hand, are sometimes dangerous; and all holes, bolts, or screws piercing the fibre tend to weaken the spar.

Master.—The captain of a merchant vessel, who holds a master's or extra-master's certificate. (Guj: Nakhwa; Mar: Nakhudla or Tandel).

Mate.—(in a ship)—The master's assistant. There may be in a merchant vessel as many as four or five mates. They are, officers under the captain. (Guj: Malum; Mar: Sarang).

Mate's Receipt:—A Receipt for cargo received on board a ship and signed by the Mate.

Meridian.—Is a line round the earth at right angles to the equator and passing through the spectator (who may be at any spot on the earth's surface) or any other point (as through Greenwich, which contitutes the Englishman's first meridian, or through Ujjain which is the Indian's first meridian). It is the circle upon which every navigator must reckon his latitude (distance from the Equator).

Middle top sail or lower topsail.—A deep roached sail set in some schooners and sloops on the heel of their topmasts, between the top and the cap.

Midshipman.—The rank in the Navy above the cadet. The lowest commissioned officer. Gentlemen's sons apprenticed to the sea in the merchant navy are also called, by courtesy, midshipmen.

CSL

Mile.—The Sea or Nautical Mile—One sixtieth of a degree of latitude and vary from 6040 ft. on the Equator to 6092 ft. in lat. 60 Degrees (See 'Knot').

Nautical Mile for speed trials, generally called the Admiralty Measured Mile=6080 ft.

=1.151 Statute miles.
=1853 metres.

Mizzen.—The word applies to both mast and the sails.

Mizzen mast.—The mast in vessels of many types as described under the heading MAST (Guj: Kalalmi; Mar: Kalabi); After Mast.

Mizzen sails.—Those bent to a mizzen mast.

Monsoon.—The periodical trade winds of certain latitude in the Indian Ocean. (Guj: Akhar; Mar: Pavsala).

Moor, mooring.—To moor is to take up a mooring; but sometimes the same term is used to signify bringing a vessel to an anchorage; and a vessel with an anchor out both ahead and astern is sad to be moored; as she may also be when both anchors are brought to one cable. (Guj: Khunto; Mar: Morin).

Naval architecture.—"The science of designing the forms for vessels." It is, therefore, distinct from shipbuilding, which is "the application in practice of the theoretical designs of the naval architect."

Navigation.—The branch of science which teaches the sailor to conduct his ship from place to place. (Guj: Vahanvatu; Mar. Noukanayan).

Neap tide.—The lowest tide, taking place about five or six days before the new and full moons.

Nose.—The iron piece protecting the steam-head of an open boat. From this the foremost point of the boat itself is sometimes called the nose.

Oar.—A light pole with a broad blade for rowing a boat. (Guj: Halasun; Mar. Valhe).

Off.—In general nautical conversation this word means "away from the shore."

On.—The opposite to "off". So the wind may be "on the shore" i.e. blowing towards it.

Overboard.—Over the side of the ship. The "board", in nautical phraseology, means the "side".

Packet.—Small passenger or mail boat. "This word meant originally a vessel appointed by Government to carry mails between the mother country and foreign countries or her own dependencies."

Pendant, or pennant (pronounced "pennant")—A long pointed flag, usually a signal.

Pier.—Piers are wharves which may be either of wood, iron or stone, and are erected to facilitate the landing of passengers and|or goods from vessels.

Pilot.—A man qualified and licensed to take ships in or out of a harbour, or channel, at certain fixed rates. The pilot is absolute master of a vessel while in "pilot water"—the latter term meaning the water in which he pilots the ship—his fees being calculated upon the ship's darught of water. (Guj: Bhoyo; Mar: Arkati.)

Ply.—(from "Apply"). To sail or to run regularly between two ports.

Poop —Properly an extra deck on the after part of a vessel. When raised over a spart deck it is sometimes called a round house. (Guj: Bhandar or Chhatedi; Mar: Chhatri).

Port (or Larboard port)—The left hand side of the vessel (Guj: Ghodi Atri or Dabo; Mar: Dawi Baju).

Privateer —The following is Falconer's account and definition: "Privateers are vessels of war armed and equipped by particular merchants, and furnished with commissions from the State a cruise against and annoy the enemy by taking, sinking or burning their ships. These vessels are generally governed on the same plan as that of the government ships.

Prow —The beak or pointed cut-water of a galley (Guj: Nahanni Chhati; Mar: Vara).

Purser —(from purse). Formerly an officer in the British British Navy whose chief duty consists in keeping the accounts of the ship to which he belonged, but he also acted as puvreyor. The title of this officer has been, since 1844, "paymaster". The title is still retained, however, in the mercantile, marine.

Put back.—To return to port for some reason after having left.

Put into port.—To run into some intermediate port from stress of weather or for any other cause.

Put to sea.—To start on a voyage to sea.

Protest.—Is a declaration made by the captain of a vessel on arrival at a put before a Notary Public, a Magistrate or any recognised authority like the Customs or Port Officer where a Notary Public, Magistrate or a Justice of the Peace is not available, declaring the state of weather or such related circumstances experienced by him on the voyage from the last port, which are likely to affect the condition of the cargo or of the ship.

Quadrant.—The instrument once used in navigation, but now long since superseded by the Sextant.

Quay.—An artificial landing place (Guj. & Mar: Dhukka).

Raft.—A group of any timbers attached together to form a float.

Rails.—Narrow planks or bars placed in various parts of a vessel, as the fiferails, into which belaying pins may be fitted. (Guj: Antaris; Mar: Bodad).

Ram.—A massive projection under water at the bow of a ship of war. The ship herself is also called a ram.

Rate.—The classification of a vessel for certain purposes. Thus a vessel may be rated Al at Lloyd's; or a ship may be rated a 3,000 tonner, or a 3,000 rater etc.

Ration.—A certain allowance of food served out to those on board a ship or elsewhere. (Guj: Bhatu; Mar: Bhatta).

Rebate.—(in shipwrighting)—A cutting-in on some timber so as to allow another to fit into it. Thus a keel is often rebated where the floor timbers abut upon it.

In commercial phraseology, "rebate" means a "drawback" or refund granted to shippers or suppliers or to any contractors, and paid to them after some lapse of time so as to keep them loyal to oneself.

Reef.—(of rocks): A low ridge of rocks usually beneath the surface of the sea.

Ribs.—The timbers which form the skeleton of a boat. The ribs in a ship are like the ribs in the human frame; they are lateral appendages to her back-bone or keel, encompassing the trunk and preserving the cavity of the hull.

Ridge.—A long group of rocks near the surface of the sea.

Rig.—A rig of a vessel is the manner in which her masts and sails are fitted to her hull. There can be but two rigs, viz. ,‘Square" and "fore-and-aft". The first is that in which the sails are hung across the vessel; the second, that in which they lie in the direction of her length. These two in ships are always more or less combined, but whenever a vessel carries square sails, she is said to be square-rigged.

Rigging.—The system of cordage in a vessel by which masts are supported and sails extended and worked. (Guj. & Mar: Alat).

Roadstead or road.—A place of anchorage at a distance from the shore.

Rope.—Generally speaking, cordage above one inch in circumference. (Guj: Russa; Mar. Dorkhund).

Royal.—Royal Mast.—The mast in a ship, bark, brig, etc. above the top-gallant, and is the highest ordinary mast in a ship, and carries the royal sail and sky sail.

Royal sail.—The sail on the royal mast.

Royal Yard.—The yard which carries the royal sail.

Rudder.—(in a steamship:) That instrument by which a vessel is steered. In a sailing ship: that frame or plank which is half submerged in water and half above water and is raised above the stern and to which the helm is fixed. It is moveable as required. (Guj: Patiun ; Mar: Avari).

Sail.—The following refers to the sails of a full-rigged ship.

Sails take their names from the mast, yard or stay upon which they are stretched. Thus, the principal sail extended upon the main mast is called the main sail; the next which stands upon the main top-mast, is called the main:top-sail ; above which is the main top-gallant-sail ; and above all, the main-royal. In the like manner, there are the foresail, the fore top-sail, the fore top-gallant-sail, and the fore-royal, although the square foresail is very rarely used from the circumstance that it would take the wind out of all the jibs, and similar appelations are given to the sails supported by the mizzen or after-mast. The main stay-sail, main-top-mast stay-sail etc. are between the main and fore masts, and the mizzen stay-sail, mizden top-mast, stay-sail, etc. are between the main and the mizzen masts. These are, however, employed only in dead calms and under exceptional circumstances. Between the foremast and the bowsprit are the fore stay-sail (commonly called the fore stay-sail), the jib and sometimes a flying jib and middle jib ; and the studding sails are those which are extended upon the booms run out beyond the arms of the different yards of the main mast and the fore mast" (Brande and Cox). (Guj: Sud ; Mar : Sheed).

A square sail.—is one bent to a yard and balanced across the ship.

A fore-and-aft sails are those set in the direction of the length of the vessel.

A gaff-sail is one bent to a gaff.

Sailor.—"On shipboard, one who is making a long sea voyage other than his first, and who is qualified to go aloft and tend the sails. A sailor is not necessarily a seaman". (Brande and Cox). (Guj: & Mar: Khalashi).

Saloon.—The main cabin or a group of cabins of a passenger boat.

Salvage.—"Originally meant the thing or goods saved from a wreck, fire or enemies. It now signifies an allowance made to those by whose means the ship or goods have been saved. "To salvage" means to save from destruction or sinking.

Scantling (from scant, a measurement).—The dimensions of any timber when reduced to its standard size; a piece of timber so reduced.

Schooner.—Is a ship having two masts, fore and main. It carries a square top sail, sometimes double, on the foremast and on the main, the main mast being fore-and-aft rigged.

There is also another class of trading schooner, with three masts, each being fore-and-aft rigged. This is called the three-masted schooner. When it sets square sails on the foremast it is sometimes called jackass rigged. But the jackass rig must not be confounded with the barkentine, which, at a distance, it resembles; the barketine has a brig-foremast, while the three masted schooner has a schooner foremast.

Besides these there is also a very beautiful class of schooner, having four masts, all fore-and-aft rigged. These vessels hail mostly from America. They are very swift and close-winded.

Scud.—To run before the wind, usually before high winds.

Scuttle.—The meaning of the word scuttle is "a hole cut." Thus an opening in a vessel's sides or deck, whether to admit light or to allow cargo or persons descending through it, is a scuttle, as the "forescuttle" which is the name given to the forecastle hatchway when that consists of a mere opening in the deck without hood or companion.

To scuttle a ship is to cut a hole in her, below the water line, so as to sink her, and in the same sense to scuttle a deck, or any other part, is to cut an aperture in it.

The High Seas are that part of the ocean beyond the (three mile) limit over which the government of a country claims jurisdiction.

The word sea is often used to describe the condition of the surface of the water, as a heavy sea when the waves are large.

Seaboard.—The sea shore.

Sea-borne.—Carried by sea. Brought from over the sea.

Sea-going.—A sea-going vessel is one designed for sea work in contradistinction to one built for river or canal navigation. Hence we speak of sea-going barges because there are various sorts of vessels or barges, not all of them sea-going.

Seam.—1. Of a sail, the stitching up of two pieces of cloth, which among sail-makers, is called pricking. 2. In ship-building, the space between two planks of a vessel. Seams are caulked with oakum, and sprayed with pitch.

Seaman.—A man who has been brought up to or has served a certain number of years at sea. A complete seaman is called able-bodied and rated A. B.; one having served a less number of years, an ordinary seaman; one only beginning his career, a landsman, who is equal to an ordinary seaman of the second class.

Season.—To keep baulks of timber or a vessel for some time in the water before making use of either..

"Season" in commercial parlance means "' a period of active service or trade.

Sextant.—The instrument used at sea for measuring the altitudes of the celestial bodies, and thereby determines the position of a ship. (Guj : Kaman ; Mar : Compass Peti).

Shackle.—A small U-shaped iron with the open end connected by a screw-pin.

Ship.—The term applied indiscriminately to any large vessel, but among seamen restricted to one which is full rigged.

"Shipowner" is one, as the name signifies, who owns a ship.

"Shipper" is one who ships cargo in a ship.

These two words should be carefully noted, as a lot of confusion is often made in the use of these words, the word "shipper" being often erroneously used for "shipowner".

Sheet.—Is a rope attached to a sail so that it may be worked, that is, let out or hauled in as occasion may require. Sheets take their names from the sails they work.

Shoal.—Is a shallow place.

It should be distinguished from coast which is the margin of the land borderng on the sea or the river.

Shrouds.—Strong ropes supporting a mast laterally ; they are now almost always of wire rope.

Signals.—" A system of symbols addressed to the eye—as flags, boards, lights, etc. for establishing communications at distances too great for the voice"

Skipper.—The master of a merchant vessel. All on board usually call the captain as "skipper" as a sort of courtesy shown by them to him. (Guj: Nakhudo ; Mar : Nakhuda).

Sky.—Skylight.—A framework of wood made to open, admitting light and air into the cabin of a vessel.

Sky sail.—The highest sail ordinarily set on a ship. It is only used in light winds, one on each mast, and the ship is then said to be "flying her kites."

Slack tide or slack water.—That condition of the tide when it is nearly stationary. (Guj: & Mar: Bhang).

CSL

Sloop.—" A vessel with one mast like a cutter ; but having a jib stay, which a cutter has not."

Sound.—1. In perfect condition.

2. An inlet from the sea over which soundings may be taken, as Plymouth Sound ; a deepbay.

Sounding.—Taking depth of water and ascertaining the quality of the ground by the lead and line. Tallow being inserted into the hollow space at the bottom of the lead will enable a small quantity of the ground upon which it descends to be brought up, and by this means an experienced navigator is enabled to judge his whereabouts in foggy weather or if for any other cause he is unable to determine his situation.

Spar.—A spar is one of the timber members of a vessel's gear, disunited from the rest. A boom, a gaff, a yard, or any other such member, is itself a spar ; and all these, taken collectively form the spars of a ship. Thus we may come across a member of which, we do not immediately recognize the purpose, but we know it at once to be a spar.

Spooning or spooming.—Driving before a heavy gale.

Spray.—The foam of the sea thrown up by breakers or by the water dashing against rocks etc.

Sprit.—Means "sprout". Hence, we have the bow-sprit, which sprouts out from the bow. The sprit, in modern sailing vessels is a pole set diagonally across a fore-and-aft sail to extend that sail by the peak.

Squall.—A sudden gust of wind, or a sudden increase in its force.

Square.—Square rig. The name given to that method of placing the sails of a ship in which they hang across the ship. They are then called square sails, in contradistinction to those which hang in the same line as the keel and are called the " fore-and-aft ". The sails themselves are also made of " square " shape, though all sides may not be equal. The " fore-and-aft " sails are usually triangular in shape. The name " square-rigged " is given, as a general rule, to those vessels which carry square sails, notwithstanding that they carry fore-and-aft sails at the same time. Thus a bark, a brigantine and a topsail schooner are square rigged.

Stability is the tendency in a boat to keep the upright, or to return to it when careened over.

Stanchion.—(Sometimes called stanchare).—An upright post in the frame of a ship. Certain stanchions support the beams in a vessel, others are to be found along the bulwarks. (Guj : Kukad).

Starboard.—The right-hand side of a vessel (Guj : Sa Atri or Jamno ; Mar : Ujwi Baju).

Stays.—Supports, strong ropes, mostly of wire, supporting spars, and more especially masts.

Steer.—To steer is to guide a boat, whether under sail, steam or oars.

Steerage.—In a steamship it is that part of the vessel having the poorest accomodation and occupied by the steerage passengers or those paying the lowest fares. The word seems to be derived from the circumstance that these passengers were, in earlier times, placed in the after or steerage part of the vessel.

Stem.—The fore part of a vessel (Guj : Agalo Moro ; Mar. Nal).

Stern.—The after part of a vessel. (Guj: Pachhalo Moro ; Mar. Vara).

Stevedore.—A man whose business is to undertake the stowage of cargo in ships.

Stow.—Stowage is the room in a vessel for cargo; it is also the process of stowing ; and to stow the cargo is to pack it so that it will not shift as she rolls.

Studding-sails.—"In square rig, narrow supplementary sails run out on small booms beyond the leeches of the principal square sails. Although not of great power from their size, they exert considerable force on the ship's movements from the leverage which their distance from the mast, as centre, gives them."

Supercargo.—A person superintending transactions relating to a vessel's cargo or stowage thereof.

Swell.—An undulating motion of water at sea always felt after a gale. A swell must be distinguished from a wash as from a passing steam vessel.

S. O. S.—Save our souls. A signal from a sinking vessel.

Survey.—To survey a ship or cargo is to hold inspection thereon as to the condition of the cargo or of the ship at any given time when survey is held.

In steamships, periodical surveys are held to ascertain the condition of the ship, usually after every four years, the first survey being held at the completion of the 4th year after construction, the second at the end of the 8th year, and the third at the end of the 12th year and so on. Lloyd's classification is made usually on the basis of these surveys.

Tarpaulin.—Is a canvas well covered with tar or paint. (Guj. & Mar. **Tadpatri**).

CSL

Taut or taught.—The seamen's pronunciation of the word is "tight". But it has a much fuller meaning at sea, and often expresses neatness; properly disposed; prepared for any emergency, etc.

Tender.—A small vessel employed to attend a larger one.

Tongue.—1. In shipbuilding, the long tapered end of one piece of timber made to fall into a scarf at the end of another piece to gain length. 2. A low or sunken sand, marked by the lightship, known as the Tongue. (Guj. & Mar: Jibhali).

Top.—1. That portion of a mast from the hounds upwards. (2) In old ships, a sort of platform placed on the head of the lower mast.

Tow.—Is to draw a vessel along in the water.

Typhoon.—A violent hurricane in the Eastern seas. (Guj. & Mar: Toofan).

Underwriters.—"Parties who take upon themselves the risk of insurance, and so called from subscribing their names at the foot of the policy. They are legally presumed to be acquainted with every custom of the trade whereon they enter a policy."

Wash.—The commotion resulting in a wave, created by a vessel moving rapidly through the water.

Way.—Momentum; a vessel in motion is said to have way on her; when she ceases to move, she has "no way" on her. Distinguished from "weigh", a vessel may not be on "way" even if she has "weighed" her anchor, or is not in ways; baulks of timber laid down for launching vessels upon, or for moving any heavy weight.

Weather Board.—That side of the ship to windward.

Weigh.—To lift the anchor from the ground. This term must not be confounded with "way" as is too often the case. A vessel is under "weigh" from the moment her anchor is weighed or off, the ground (or as soon as she has slipped her mooring), even though she may have no "way" on her.

Wharf.—Loading place for vessels or a jetty for landing passengers or unloading goods from a vessel. (Guj: & Mar: Dhukka).

Wharf Dues—Charges made for loading or discharging cargoes at certain wharves.

Wharffinger.—One who owns a wharf. The term is now sometimes applied to Customs Officers who have to work on wharves.

Wind Sail.—A tube or awning of canvas, employed in hot latitudes to convey a draught of fresh air to the lower part of a ship.

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Windlass.—The wheel and axle, turned by either handspikes or a crank by which the chain cable of a vessel (or any other weight) may be hauled in.

Yard.—A spar suspended to a mast for the purpose of extending a sail. (Guj : Parman ; Mar : Parban).

It is elevated by means of a rope ; and this rope is accordingly called a halyard (i.e. haul yard). In square rigged vessels, the yards go across the masts—i.e. at right angles to the keel line. In fore-and-aft rig, they run fore and aft, i.e. in a line parallel with the keel. Yards take their names from the sails they carry; on a full-rigged ship there will be five on each mast. On the main mast, the main yard, main skysail yard, main top-gallant yard, main royal yard, main-sky sail yard, and in rare instances a yard to higher sails called respectively the moon-raker and the jumper ; and the same on the other masts, substituting for 'main', the word "fore" or "mizzen" as the case may be, with the exception that the lowest yard on the mizzen mast is known as the cross jack or crotched yard.

Yawl.—A vessel with two masts—main and mizzen, the mizzen being small and carrying usually only one sail.

Zenith.—The point directly overhead of any person.

Zephyr.—The west wind ; but in general conversation it often signifies only a light wind.

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SOME INSURANCE TERMS.

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(These are taken mostly from the "Handy Book for Shipowners & Masters" issued by the Managers, Messrs. John Holman & Sons for the West of England Steamship Owners' Protection and Indemnity Association, Ltd., 1 Lloyds Avenue, London, E.C.3., and also from other books on Insurance.)

Average.—Partial, as distinguished from total loss. "Warranted free from average" means that an underwriter insuring on such terms is not liable for anything other than total loss of the subject matter insured.

Abandonment.—A cession of all the rights of an assured in the subject matter of insurance to the underwriter.

Absolute Total Loss.—The total destruction or annihilation of the thing insured or a complete and permanent removal of the thing out of the power of the assured and the underwriter through the operation of some peril insured against.

Barratry:—Any wilful act causing loss or seizure of or damage to a ship on the part of the Master with a criminal intent.

Capture.—The taking of a ship as a prize by a belligerent in time of war with intent to deprive the owner of his property in the ship.

Constructive Total Loss.—It is a C.T.L. where the subject matter insured is reasonably abandoned on account of its actual total loss appearing to be unavoidable or because it could not be preserved from actual total loss without an expenditure which would exceed its value when the expenditure has been incurred.

Continuation Clause.—A clause practically in all time policies providing that if at the end of the period of insurance the ship is at sea the insurance may be extended until her arrival at some port, subject to previous notice to the underwriters.

Covering Note.—A memorandum setting out concisely the material terms of an insurance signed on behalf of an Insurance Company and issued to the insurance brokers as a preliminary to the issue of a policy.

F. P. A.—Free of particular average.

General Average.—A term denoting expenditure or partial loss, the result of a voluntary sacrifice for the common safety, and involving a right on the part of the owner of the property sacrificed to receive contribution from other interests directly benefitted.

Insurable Interest.—A person has "insurable interest" in a marine adventure when he may benefit by the safety or due arrival of the property, concerned, or may be prejudiced by its loss or by damage thereto. Ownership is not necessary; any right in relation to property in transit by sea, or even a liability arising out of a contract concerning such property, may properly call for an insurance.

Jansen Clause.—A clause intended to relieve an underwriter for the first 3 per cent. off any claim in the case of a P|A on ship, although stranded, sunk or burnt, owners agreeing to remain uninsured for this 3 per cent. It reads thus:

> "In the event of Particular Average the assurers only be liable for the excess of 3 per cent. upon the entire value".

Lloyd's.—Was originally a coffee house of Lombard Street Street where seafaring men and men engaged in maritime business met. About 1770 an association was formed, of which underwriters and brokers were members, and a worldwide system of agencies in relation to marine insurance was inaugurated. In 1774 Lloyd's moved from Pope's Head Alley to the Royal Exchange, where the Corporation still remains established. The business of Lloyd's underwriters is individual to themselves; but they have a corporate existence the business of which is carried on by a committee elected by and from members of Lloyd's.

Lloyd's Agents are appointed by the Committee of Lloyd's and their principal duties are to report to Headquarters on (1) all losses and casualties; and (2) arrivals and departures of ships. Further

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to assist masters and owners of ships on the Register in case of casualty etc.; and to collect and pass on to Lloyd's any special information to be of interest to members.

Lloyd's Register Committee is responsible for the registration of all seagoing tonnage over 100 tons register, and the classification of a very large proportion of the whole commercial tonnage of the world. The Committee is composed mainly of representative shipowners and underwriters with about ten shipbuilders and engineers in addition.

Notice of Abandonment.—A notice given by the assured to his underwriters when the assured has good and sufficient reason for supposing that the subject matter insured is a constructive total loss. The notice is an election on the part of the assured to abandon ; but underwriters do not in practice accept the abandonment until the loss is clearly demonstrated. Where notice of abandonment is accepted it is irrevocable ; silence on the part of the underwriters after notice is given is not an acceptance. If abandonment is not accepted and salvage and|or general average charges may have possibly be incurred, the assured must in his own interest issue writs forthwith against underwriters ,unless indeed, as is usually the case, underwriters agree to place the assured in the same position as if writs had been issued.

Open Policy.—A policy in which the value of the subject matter of insurance is not agreed. In case of a loss under such a policy, the assured has to prove the measure of his loss.

P. P. I.—Policy proof of interest.—The intention of such a policy is that the assured shall be under no obligation to prove an insurable interest in the subject matter of insurance if and when a loss occurs. This form of policy is also known as an "honour" policy, because the insurer is not legally bound to pay a loss under the policy. An immense amount of honest business is done through the medium of this form of policy, and insurers rarely avail themselves of the plea that the policy is void in law.

Particular Average Loss.—Is a partial loss of the subject matter insured caused by a peril insured against.

Premium.—The sum of money paid to the insured by way of consideration to the insurer for his acceptance of risk.

Protection and Indemnity Association.—A mutual association for the protection and|or indemnification of its members against losses and claims for which the member may become liable (without his actual fault or privity) to third parties. The scope of the cover is defined by the Rules of each Association; but inasmuch as in maritime business wholly unforeseen contingencies not infrequently arise members are held covered in respect of not only specific risks, such as loss of life and injury, damage to cargo, &c,

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but also for liabilities of a novel and extraordinary kind arising in the course of the shipowners' business, which in the opinion of the Committee come within the scope of the Association.

Seizure.—Is a wider term than that of capture and goes beyond it. It includes for instance, a seizure by Revenue Officers of another State and seems to cover every act of taking forcible possession of a ship either by a lawful authority or by overpowering force.

Sue and Labour Clause.—In the ordinary form of Lloyd's policy runs as follows :—"And in case of any loss or misfortune it shall be lawful to the assured, their factors, servants or assigns to sue, labour and travel for in and about the defence, safeguard and recovery of the said ship without prejudice to this insurance". The object of this clause is to encourage exertion on the part of the assured and induce him to take every step practicable for the protection and recovery of the thing insured waiving any notice of abandonment, as also to put upon insurers a liability to pay their due proportion to any expenses properly incurred.

T. L. O.—(Total loss only)—A policy covering this risk pays in case of constructive total loss, but the latter may be excluded by using the phrase "Against absolute total loss only".

Underwriter.—Any person capable of entering into an agreement can "underwrite" a marine risk, i.e. sign his name at the foot of the policy as an insurer of a specific amount set against his name.

Voyage Policy.—Where the contract is to insure the subject matter "at and from" or from one place to another or others, the policy is called a "voyage" policy. The objection to this form of insurance is that in case of unauthorized deviation from the voyage or if the implied warranty of seaworthiness at the outset of the voyage is breached, the cover afforded by the policy is thereby voided.

Wager Policy.—(or Honour Policy) is one under which the assured may recover the amount insured quite irrespective of any insurable interest. There is no intention on the part of either assured or insurer that the insurance shall be one of indemnity and therefore on the face of the Policy are found the words "Interest or no interest" or "This policy to be deemed sufficient proof of interets".

Waranties.—Are in effect undertakings on the part of the assured that some particular thing shall or shall not be done, or that some condition shall be fulfilled, or thereby he affirms or denies the existence of a particular state of facts. A warranty must be exactly complied with, whether it be material to the risk or not. "A Warranty in a contract of insurance is a condition or a contingency and unless that be performed there is no contract."

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SOME MORE SHIPPING & INSURANCE TERMS, AND ABVREVIATIONS.

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Average (General): An adjustment of a loss between all interested parties, the loss being a wilful act of the master in order to save the vessel and cargo.

Bill of Exchange: An order in writing from a bank to pay a certain person a certain sum of money either on demand or at a specified time, the issuing bank being responsible for the money.

Bill of Health: A document stating the condition of the health of the country the vessel has sailed from.

Cocket Card: A document given to the master by the Customs sanctioning the sailing of the vessel, all regulations having been complied with.

Consignor: One who consigns the goods to carriers for despatching to consignee; shipper.

Consignee: The firm or person authorized to receive the cargo, and to whom it is consigned.

Dead Freight: Frieght which is paid on empty space in the vessel when the charterer is responsible for the freight of a full cargo.

Jerque Note: A document given to the master by the Customs after the inward cargo is discharged and the vessel has been "rummaged".

Light Dues: Fees which all vesels have to pay in order to maintain the lighthouse service, etc.

Manifest: A document containing the list of passengers, details of all stores and cargo in the vessel.

Maritime Lien: The claim a master or crew has on the vessel for the payment of wages due.

Primage: A small percentage paid to the ship in certain trades, over and above the specified freight.

Protest: A written declaration by the master and witnessed before a Notary Public or like authority that on account of special circumstances, such as, bad weather, etc. any cargo that may be damaged is due to the "perils of the sea", and not to any fault of the vessel or crew.

Register: A document giving all particulars of the vessel, her owner's and Master's name, etc.

Respondentia: The act of raising money to complete the voyage by pledging the cargo in the vessel.

Tonnage: Carrying capacity of a ship; quantity of cargo carried or to be carried.

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Dead-weight tonnage: Expresses the number of tons of 2,240 pounds each that a vessel can transport of cargo, stores and bunker fuel. It is the difference between the number of tons of water a vessel displaces "light" and the number of tons it displaces when submerged to the "load water line". "Dead weight tonnage" is used interchangeably with dead-weight carrying capacity. A Vessel's capacity for weight cargo is less than its total dead-weight tonnage.

Cargo Tonnage: is either "weight" or "measurement". The weight ton in the United States and in British countries is the English long or gross ton of 2,240 pounds. In France and other countries using the metric system a weight ton is 2,204.6 pounds. "measurement" ton is usually 40 cubic feet or 1.133 cubic meters; but in some instances a larger number of cubic feet is taken for a ton. Most ocean package freight is taken at weight or measurement (W|M) at ship's option.

Gross tonnage: applies to vessels, not to cargo. It is determined by dividing by 100 contents, in cubic feet, of the vessel's closed-in spaces. A vessel ton is 100 cubic feet. The register of a vessel states both gross and net tonnage.

Net tonnage: is a vessel's gross tonnage minus deductions of space occupied by accommodations for crew, by machinery for navigation, by the engine room and fuel. A vessel's net tonnage expresses the space available for the accommodation of passengers and the stowage of cargo. A ton of cargo, in most instances, occupies less than 100 cubic feet; hence, the vessel's cargo tonnage may exceed its net tonnage, and indeed, the tonnage of cargo carried is usually greater than the gross tonnage.

Displacement: of a vessel is the weight, in tons of 2,240 pounds, of the vessel and its contents. Displacement "light" is the weight of the vessel without stores, bunker fuel, or cargo. Displacement "loaded" is the weight of the vessel, plus cargo, fuel and stores.

For a modern freight steamer the following relative tonnage figures would ordinarily be approximately correct:—

Net tonnage (B.R.T. net)	4,000
Gross tonnage (B.R.T. gr.)	6,000
Dead-weight carrying capacity (D.W.T.) ..	10,000
Displacement loaded, about (T.D.)	13,350

A vessel's registered tonnage, whether gross or net, is practically the same under the American rules and the British rules. When measured according to the Panama or Suez tonnage rules most vessels have larger gross and net tonnages than when measured by British or American rules.

ABREVIATIONS.

A.A.R.—Against all risks.
A|R—All risks (marine insurance).
A|1—First class.
100-A|1—Lloyd's highest class of seaworthiness of a steamer.
B.E.—Bill of Exchange.
B|L—Bill of Lading.
B|S—Bill of sale.
B.O.T.—Board of Trade.
C. & F.—Cost and Freight.
c.ft.—Cubic feet.
C.i.f.—Cost, Insurance, Freight. Shippers pay freight and insurance, but the goods travel at the risk of the consignee.
C.O.D.—Cash on Delivery.
C|P.—Charter Party.
C.T.L.—Constructive total loss.
D|A—Documents for acceptance.
D.O.—Delivery Order.
d|w—deadweight.
Ex.-Ship—The goods travel at the risk of the shippers until buyer takes possession of them overside.
F.A.A.—Free of all average.
f.a.s.—free alongside ship.
F.D.—Free Delivery.
f.o.r.—free on rail.
f.o.b.—free on board.
F.C. & S.—Free of capture and seizure.
F.P.A.—Free of particular average.
G|A.—General Average.
L|c—Letter of credit.
M.S.—Motor Ship.
M.V.—Mostor Vessel.
O.R.—At Owner's risk.
P.A.—Particular Average.
Per pro. or pp.—Per procuration; management of another's affairs conferring the powers of a proctor.
P. & I.—Protection & indemnity.
P.p.i—Policy proof of interest.
S.L.—Sue and Labour charges.
T.L.O.—Total loss only.
W.P.—Weather permitting.
w.g.—Weight guaranteed.
W.P.A.—Wth particular average.
W.W.D.—Weather working days.
Y|A.—York Antwerp Rules.

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APPENDIX B.

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SCALE OF TONNAGE

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Tonnage Scale is an important factor in shipment and import of cargo.

This scale is necessary, because all cargo is not of the same specification or of the same weight though apparently the packings may be of the same measurements. Some cargo will be heavy which will put down considerably the draught of the ship but will occupy less space thereon. For instance, hardware or gold or silver bar cases will occupy less space on the ship, but the ship's draught will go down more than other lighter cargo. On the other hand, lighter cargo such as chillies, coir, cloves, cuttlefish, bidi leaves, medicinal herbs and roots etc. will occupy more space, but would weigh much less and will not put down the ship's draught as the former items of cargo would do. Besides some cargo is suitable for measurement, and some is suitable for weighment, while yet another kind of cargo may be suitable both for weighment and measurement.

All these complications are likely to create trouble between the shipper and the shipping companies. In fact these troubles had actually arisen in the past when arbitrary bases used to be adopted according as the shipowners may think fit to do.

In order to remove these uncertainties and arbitrariness, recognised merchant bodies have gone deeply into the question, and by common consent adopted certain basis for calculating space that will be occupied by a certain type of cargo in proportion to its weight. The main idea is to take into account the extent of space that a certain kind of cargo occupies on a ship and at the same time also to take into account the draught of the ship that the cargo will submerge in water.

Then the weight and the cubical dimensions of the cargo are taken into consideration and a basis fixed for calculation of tonnage, because the rates of freight are for the most part fixed on the basis of a ton of cargo. This ton is usually of 20 cwts in weight or of 40 cubic feet in measurement. But this is only so far as normal cargo is concerned. Usually, however, there is such a variety of cargo that these two bases have to be varied considerably. Thus, a ton may be of 4 cwts as in case of light type of cargo like chillies, or of 50 cubic feet, as in the case of timber as adopted by government but not by the Chambers. The Chambers have fixed timber scale at 40 cubic feet to the ton. Therefore, different scale is adopted for such different types of cargo depending on the nature, bulk and weight of the cargo.

Usually Chambers of Commerce adopt these scales based on experience, and the merchants abide by same. We give herebelow the Schedule of Tonnage Scale as adopted by the Bombay Chamber of Commerce :—

TONNAGE SCHEDULE.

(At the special general meeting of the Chamber held on Wednesday, the 24th of September 1924, the tonnage schedule printed below was adopted with effect from the 1st October 1924, in supersession of all tonnage schedules in force at Bombay before that date.)

The tonnage scale for steamers shall be on the basis of 40 cubic feet to the ton, but in no case to exceed 20 cwts., dead weight.

Cylindrical packages that weigh less than 20 cwts. to the 40 cubic feet are to be accepted as measurement cargo and the following formula shall be recognised for the calculation of their cubical contents, namely, that the square of the diameter be multiplied into the length and one-fifth be deducted from the product.

The scale for a consignment of an article not mentioned in the following schedule shall be a matter for arrangement between the shipper and the agents of the steamship concerned. Facilities will be provided for tests to be made should the quantity involved be sufficiently large.

ARTICLES	TO THE TON
Ajwan (Weed) seed, in bags	11 cwt.
Almonds, shelled	10 cwt.
Do. unshelled	8 cwt.
Aloes, in kegs	40 c. ft.
Alum, in bags	16 cwt..
Angoor	13 cwt.
Annatto, in cases	40 c. ft.
Apricots or Jardaloo	13 cwt.
Arrowroot, in cases	40 c ft.
Asafoetida in cases	40 c. ft.
Bajree, in bags	18 cwt.
Barley, in bags	16 cwt.
Beans, Arad, Oorid or Toor in bags	17 cwt.
Bees' Wax, in cases	40 c ft.
Betelnut, in bags	13 cwt.
Blackwood, in straight square logs	40 c ft.
Do. otherwise	16 cwt.
* Bones, crushed, ¾" mesh	13 cwt.

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* Sieves for testing purposes are kept in the rooms of the Chamber. A consignment shall correspond to the smallest mesh through which test 90 per cent of a fair sample passes.

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Do. ½" mesh	14 cwt.
Do. 5|16" mesh	15 cwt.
Bone-meal, 3|32" mesh	20 c. ft.
Borax, in cases	40 c. ft.
Do. in bags	16 cwt.
Bran pressed in bags (of 45½"×25" weighing not less than 140 lbs..)	10 cwt.
Bran in bags (unpressed)	9 cwt.
Bullion	Ad valorem.
Camphor, in cases	40 c. ft.
Canes, Rattans in bundles	13 cwt.
Cardamoms, in bundles	40 c. ft.
Casein Powder, in bags	13 cwt.
Cashew-nuts, in cases	40 c. ft.
Cassia Lignea Fistula, and Buds	40 c. ft.
Castor Seed, Bold Cawnpore	10 cwt.
Do. Small	12 cwt.
Chasum	8 cwt.
Chillies, in bags	4 cwt.
Do. in borras	40 c ft.
China Root, in cases	40 c. ft.
Cigars	40 c. ft.
Cinchona Bark	10 cwt.
Cinnamon, in bales or cases	40 c. ft.
Cloves, in cases	40 c. ft.
Do. in bags or frazils	8 cwt.
Coculus Indicus, in bags	13 cwt.
Cocum, in bags	10 cwt.
Coffee, in cases	40 c ft.
Do. in bags or frazils	14 cwt.
Coir, in bales	40 c ft.
Do. in bundles or loose	5 cwt.
Do. Rope, in coils	40 c. ft.
Colocynth, in cases	40 c. ft.
Colombo Root, in bags	8 cwt.
Copra, in robbins or bags	8 cwt.
Copra, cut in bags	10 cwt.
Coriander Seed	10 cwt.
Costus Root (Ooplate)	10 cwt.
Cotton Seed	13 cwt.
Cotton, in bales —	40 c. ft.
Cowries, in cases—	40 c. ft.
Do. in bags —	16 cwt.
Cubebs —	10 cwt.
Cummin Seed (Jeera), in bags	11 cwt.
Cutch or Terra Japonica, in bags or baskets	13 cwt.

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Cuttlefish —	4 cwt.
Dates, wet —	16 cwt.
Do. dry	13 cwt.
Dhall, crushed, in bags	17 cwt.
Dillseed (Aniseed or Soowa seed)	10 cwt.
Divi-divi —	13 cwt.
Draggon's Blood, in cases	40 c. ft.
Ebony, square and straight	40 c. ft.
Do. otherwise	16 cwt.
Elephants' Teeth, in cases	40 c. ft.
Do. in bundles	14 cwt.
Do. loose	16 cwt.
Fennel Seed	10 cwt.
Fenugreek or Methi Seed	17 cwt.
Flour, in bags	18 cwt.
Do. midlings, or sharps, in bags	12 cwt.
Galingals	10 cwt.
Galls, in Bags	13 cwt.
Do. in cases	40 c.ft.
Ganja	5 cwt.
Garlic	8 cwt.
Ghandi Medicine	10 cwt.
Gingelly or Teel Seed	14 cwt.
Ginger, dry, in cases	40 c. ft.
Do. in bags	10 cwt.
Gram, in bags	18 cwt.
Groundnuts, shelled	14 cwt.
Do, unshelled	6 cwt.
Gums of all kinds, in cases	40 c. ft.
Gum Olibanum or Googal, in bags	13 cwt.
Do. Persian, in double bags	17 cwt.
Do. Arabic, Tragacanth, in double bags	17 cwt.
Hemp in bales	40 c. ft.
Do. loose or in bundles	5 cwt.
Hides and Skins, in bales, bundles or casks	40 c. ft.
Horns, Buffalo, or Cow, loose	13 cwt.
Do. do, in bundles or bags	6 cwt.
Do. Deer, loose	6 cwt.
Horn, Tips, of any kind	13 cwt.
Indigo, in cases	40 c. ft.
Iron of all sorts	20 cwt.
Jackwood	40 c. ft.
Jaggery	18 cwt.
Jambul Seed	10 cwt.
Jestimud or Liquorice	18 cwt.
Jowaree, in bags	17 cwt.

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Kangseed, in bags	16 cwt.
Khismis or Raisins, in cases	40 c. ft.
Lac Dye, in shells or cases	**40 c. ft.**
Lac seed	10 cwt.
Lang, in bags	18 cwt.
Do. crushed, in bags	17 cwt.
Linseed, in bags	16 cwt.
Mace, in cases	40 c. ft.
Maize, in bags	16 cwt.
Mother-o'-Pearl, in tins or cases	40 c. ft.
Do. in bags	16 cwt.
Mowrah Flowers	18 cwt.
Do. See, in bags	13 cwt.
Munjeet or Madder Root, in cases or bales	40 c. ft.
Do. in bundles or bags	8 cwt.
Musk, in cases	40 c. ft.
Mussoor (Lentils), in bags	19 cwt.
Mustard Seed	15 cwt.
Myrabolams, uncrushed, in bags	14 cwt.
Do. crushed, in bags	11 cwt.
Myrabolam Powder	15 cwt.
Niger Seed	14 cwt.
Nutmegs, in cases	40 c. ft.
Nux Vomica, in cases	40 c. ft.
Nux Vomica, in bags	13 cwt.
Oats	12 cwt.
Oil, of any kind, in casks, tins or cases	40 c. ft.
Oil Cake expeller	16 cwt.
Do. rotary or ghanny	15 cwt.
Do. hydraulic pressed	16 cwt.
Do. Powder	16 cwt.
Do. Meal (groundnut)	16 cwt.
Opium	per chest.
Paddy, in bags	13 cwt.
Pepper, in bags	13 cwt.
Peas	17 cwt.
Pimento	12 cwt.
Pistachio nuts	10 cwt.
Plumbago, in bags	16 cwt.
Pollards, in bags	10 cwt.
Poppy Seed, in bags	13 cwt.
Rape Seed	15 cwt.
Rattans, Canes in bundles	13 cwt.
Do. ground	13 cwt.
Red Wood	13 cwt.
Rice, in bags	18 cwt.

Rosin	10 cwt.
Safflower, in cases or bales	40 c. ft.
Do. in bags	8 cwt.
Safflower Seed (Kurdi Seed or Kasumba), in bags—	13 cwt.
Sago, in cases	40 c. ft.
Sal Ammoniac, in cases	40 c. ft.
Do. in bags	15 cwt.
Salt	28 Indian maunds of 82-2|7 lbs.
Salpetre	20 cwt.
Sandalwood and Sapanwood	9 cwt.
Do. Roots and Chips	7 cwt.
Sealing Wax, in cases	40 c. ft.
Senna, in bags	5 cwt.
Do. in bales	40 c. ft.
Shells, rough, in bags	16 cwt.
Silk, in bales	8 cwt.
Do. in cases	40 c. ft.
Soap, in cases	40 c. ft.
Soap-nuts	10 cwt.
Sugar, in double bags	19 cwt.
Tale	16 cwt.
Tallow	40 c. ft.
Tamarind	15 cwt.
Tea, in chests	40 c. ft.
Timber	40 c. ft.
Tobacco, in bales	40 c. ft.
Tortoise Shells, in chests	40 c. ft.
Turmeric, in bags	11 cwt.
Tutenague	16 cwt.
Whanghees (vide Canes)	13 cwt.
Wheat	18 cwt.
Wines and Spirits, in casks or cases	40 c. ft.
Wool, in bales	40 c. ft.
Zedoary	16 cwt.

The above scale is mainly adopted for cargo shipped by steamers. But the same scale is now being accepted for shipments per sailing ships.

This tonnage scale is, for the most part, adopted on the West Coast and generally on the coast of India as a whole. And so far as it goes, it does not materially differ from that adopted in foreign countries, except for the fact that the articles exported from there may be different with different scales.

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WEIGHMENT AND MEASUREMENT

It may be mentioned further that the Chambers of Commerce maintain their own departments for measuring and weighing cargo so as to assist the trade. They maintain a staff of properly qualified measurers who are conversant with the basis to be adopted for each kind of cargo. They issue certificates after measuring or weighing cargo according to the tonnage scale adopted by the Chambers whenever their servicces are called for by shippers. The Chambers further make their own rulers and regulations regarding the procedure to be adopted in the process of measurement or weighment, charges for same, application for securing the services of the measures, the issuing of certificates, and all the rest so that the trade can have precise information on the subject. The Rules and Regulations issued by the Indian Merchants' Chamber of Bombay are therefore reproduced herebelow to serve as specimen:—

Rules and Regulations.

(Adopted at the meeting of the Committee of the Chamber held on 31st March 1942).

1. The Rules and Regulations as hereinunder be and are hereby adopted with effect from 1st February, 1941.

2. Public Measures shall be appointed by the Secretary of the Chamber under the authority of the Committee of the Chamber and posted at the different quays for the purpose of measuring cargo, required to be so measured.

3. Only such measurements as are taken by the duly appointed measurers, with the instruments bearing the stamp of the Chamber, shall be valid.

4. The Chief Measurer shall be responsible for the good condition of the instruments in use in the Department and he shall remove out of use such instruments as are found defective.

5. Certificates of measurements issued to shippers and|or to ship agents shall contain the following particulars :—

(a) The date, hour and place of measurement
(b) The name of the shipper
(c) The name of the vessel
(d) The port of destination
(e) The number and description of packages
(f) The Marks
(g) Details of measurement ;
and in the case of goods shipped by boats
(h) The registered number of the boats ;
(i) The name of the tindal.

6. The Certificates bearing the particulars required under Rule 5 issued to the shippers and|or the ship agents or to any other party shall be signed by the measurer|or measurers who measured the goods.

7. The measurers shall have authority to withhold or recall such certificates if they have reasonable cause to suspect any irregularity in the matter of shipment in respect of the goods to which such certificates relate.

8. The measurers withholding or recalling certificates under Rule 7 shall report forthwith to the Secretary in writing their reasons for taking such action.

9. Shippers shall arrange the cargo offered for measurement in such a manner as will facilitate speedy measurement of the same.

10. If the shippers are found:

(a) mixing unmeasured goods with measured goods or permitting them to be mixed;

(b) obstructing the work of measurement by negligence in moving with reasonable promptitude the bales or packages required by the measurer to be moved for proper performance of his duties;

Or

(c) evading these rules,

the measurer may call upon the shippers or their representatives to deposit on the quay the whole complement of their consignments before measurements are taken.

In all such cases, the measurer concerned shall report in writing to the Secretary the name of the shipper concerned and the circumstances under which action had to be taken under this rule.

11. Individual measurement shall be recorded of each and every package in a lot of packages which is of unequal dimensions. This rule shall not apply to lots of pressed bales from the various presses if the shippers arrange such diverse bales according to their respective dimensions separately on the quay.

12. In regard to packages of uniform dimensions the measurer shall in no case measure less than five per cent. of each lot. For the purposes of such measurement the measurer shall select such packages that fairly represent the average.

13. In case of measurement of pressed bales from one or more presses, the certificate shall show the number of such lots of bales from different presses.

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14. In respect of a consignment or a portion of a consignment shut out after measurement, the measurement fee recovered shall be refunded in full.

15 Refund of measurement fees shall not be made for any sum less than Re. 1.

16. All claims for refund of measurement fees shall be made to the Secretary of the Chamber who shall allow or disallow such claims in conformity with these rules, but no claim for refund of measurement fees shall be allowed unless presented within one month from the date of sailing of the vessel concerned.

17. The Measurement Department shall have a Dispute Book kept in each station, and it shall be competent for any part (shipper, owner, agent or master of a vessel) concerned with the measurements, to dispute the correctness of a measurement given in respect of goods being shipped by any said party and to call for the Dispute Book for entering therein a claim to have the goods in question re-measured. On receiving a deposit of the sum of Rs. 2 per each package to be re-measured from the disputing party, the measurer shall at once re-measure such packages to the satisfaction of the aggrieved party and shall give to the said party a certificate of the measurement so found with remarks entered "Protested Certificate.. Fee paid Rs......" The measurer shall immediately thereafter forward to the Secretary a statement of the case including the amount of the fee received.

18. Extra fees deposited under Rule 17 shall be refunded, if in the opinion of the Secretary, the original measurement is not found substantially correct.

19. Every measurer shall receive a book of measurement slips together with indelible pencil and carbon papers for making such slips in quadruplicate. The measurer will hand to the shippers at the time of the measurement, the original and second carbon copy; the third carbon copy will be handed to the ships agents' representative on demand and the first carbon copy will be retained for the Chamber's Records.

Provided that when goods are shipped in boats for delivery alongside, the third carbon copy belonging to the ships agents shall be handed to the boatsman from whom it should be obtained by the ship's officers.

20. In respect of round timber logs the measurement to be certified, shall be as follows:—

Length in foot and in inches: as found with tape.

Breadth: The mean of two measurements taken with calipers at the thickest and thinnest portion.

Depth: —do— —do—

21. All measurement fees shall be paid to the Measurement Fee Clerk and no goods shall be measured without the production of the Custom House Pass bearing the endorsement of the said clerk to the effect that the fees have been paid.

22. The scale of measurement fees leviable under the rules shall be according to Schedule I herebelow subject to amendment from time to time by the Committee of the Chamber.

23. These rules shall, **mutatis mutandis,** apply to any weighment work at any time undertaken on behalf of the Chamber.

24. The Committee of the Chamber shall decide any question or point, not specifically provided for in these rules, and their decision shall be final.

25. The Committee shall also have power to add to rescind, or vary any or all of the above rules, either generally or in any specific case.

SCHEDULE I.

The scale of measurement fees leviable under Rule 22 shall be as follows :—

(a) On cotton, wool, hemp, aloe, fibre twist (white and coloured) rags and waste in pressed bales .. pies 6 per bale

(b) On Round Timber or logs each .. As. 8|-.

(c) On Gunny bales from Calcutta, Hides and Skins, Piece-goods, and all goods not included under (a) and (b) packages of diverse dimensions. Subject to a rebate of anna one per package on the Measures certifying **that the lot measured consisted of not less than 50 packages all of uniform dimensions.** .. As. 2|- per pkg.

(d) On goods of any description measured on board a a vessel. .. As. 2|- per pkg.

(e) When the work of the Department admits of such an arrangement, the exclusive services of a Measurer for a day may be secured on payment to the Secretary of a fee of Rs. 10.

(f) The attendance of a Measurer on a Sunday or one of the Charter Party Holidays when the docks are closed may be secured on application to the Secretary accompanied by a sum of Rs. 15; extra charges of one rupee each for a peon and a stampman will be recovered for for attendance on such duties. If a Measurer is required to work on more than one steamer a separate fee of Rs. 15 shall be paid in respect of each steamer.

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(g) The attendance of a Measurer for night duty may be secured in the same manner as above.

Of course, each Chamber may have its own rules and regulations and charges for measurement or weighment. But the above should serve as guidance. Besides, there exists in these days the Federation of world Chambers called "International Chamber of Commerce", and an uniformity in such cases is likely to be achieved, if not already done, by the action of this central body of the commercial men and industrialists of the world.

APPENDIX C

SOME RELEVANT FORMALITIES IN RESPECT OF CUSTOMS AND PORT TRUST AT BOMBAY AS RELATING TO SAILING VESSELS.

Herebelow we give a few formalities which are necessary in respect of registration of sailing ships, their entering in and clearing from Bombay and in respect of exporting and importing cargo per sailing vessels from and into Bombay. So far as the latter (importing and exporting of cargo) is concerned, the procedure and formalities are practically the same as in the case of steamships, though the latter are more elaborate especially in the case of steamers arriving from and sailing to foreign ports. We shall consider all these processes hereunder.

Let us first see as to how the ships are registered after they are built.

I. REGISTRATION OF SAILING VESSELS.

As soon as ships are ready in a shipbuilding yard for floating, or when they are actually floated, their dimensions are taken by the Mercantile Marine Department (Shipping Office as in Bombay) or by the Customs Department where no shipping office exists, on an application made by the owners for registration.

An Officer of the Customs Department or of the Shipping Office would then measure the length, breadth and depth of the ship, and on payment of the necessary fees a certificate will be issued.

This Certificate will form the Ship's Register. It is called "Kaul" in Indian languages (Marathi and Gujerati).

The "Kaul" contains the following information:

1. Name and Number of the Vessel.
2. The year of building and the place where it is built.
3. The name of the issuing officer and place, that is, the the signature of the officer.

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4. The name of the owners.
5. The Port of Registration.
6. Measurement of the vessel as below:—
   (i) Length, (ii) Breadth, (iii) Depth inside, (iv) Depth outside.
7. Tonnage Capacity.
8. Number of the Certificate and date.

The vessel is then entered in the Register of the port where the certificate in question is issued.

The ship would thus be said to be registered at such and such a port.

II. ENTERING AND CLEARING OF SHIPS

Then the requirements in the case of "Entering" and "Clearing" of a sailing ship, which are to be attended to by shipowners or by their agents are:—

1. When "Entering" a sailing ship, following documents are required:—
   - i. A copy of the Manifest of the import cargo, called "Satami".
   - ii. Rat Certificate—to be obtained from the last port of call, stating that the ship is free from rats, and that rat-traps are provided, etc.
   - iii. Light Dues Certificate.
   - iv. Original Shipping Bills.
   - v. Port Charges Voucher (Voucher from the last port of call).
   - vi. An application to "enter" the ship.
   - vii. Ration Cards (this is a wartime requirement).

After these formalities are over, the ship can start unloading of cargo.

When a ship has arrived in ballast, the "Nil" Cargo Manifest has to be submitted. All other documents, except Shipping Bills, have to be produced as in the case of ships arriving with cargo.

N.B. "Entering" means reporting and getting entered in the Customs Register the arrival of the ship from other port. The word is obviously taken from the fact that a ship has entered the waters of a port. Entering therefore does not mean entering into the limits of a port. It simply means registering or 'entering" the ship in the Customs' register after the ship has actually entered the harbour limits.

2. When "Clearing" a ship from Bombay to outports the following requirements have to be fulfilled:—

Port Clearance will be given by the Customs after satisfying itself about the following documents and regulations:—

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i. Whether the Shipping Bill or Bills have been prepared.
ii. Whether a copy of the Export Manifest has been submitted.
iii. Whether the goods have been examined by the Customs officers.
iv. Whether Export Permits for cargo shipped on vessels have been obtained from the Director of Civil Supplies and|or the Controller of Metals or Export Trade Controller, as the case may be. This of course is a war-requirement.
v. Whether the vessel is in a fit condition to carry the cargo.

Under the present circumstances it is not necessarily the duty of Customs authorities to examine the vessels before departure as to their seaworthiness. And this is not usually insisted. But granting of Port Clearance may imply the seaworthiness of the ship.

However definite statement is required on this point to avoid any misunderstanding and dispute in respect of same.

vi. Whether the Port Dues have been paid.
vii. Whether Light Dues have been paid.
viii. Whether the "Rat" Pass has been obtained.

III. THE PROCEDURE BEFORE COMMENCEMENT OF LOADING.

(1) To produce Receipts to the Port and Customs authorities from the consignees of cargo imported, if any, testifying that the import cargo brought by the ship has been duly delivered. These Receipts are usually produced by the captain, or by the agents or brokers on his behalf.

(2) To apply to the Customs for loading for destination port or ports as desired by the ship's agents or master.

After this is done, loading can be started.

IV. EXPORT AND IMPORT OF CARGO.

Then, the procedure and formalities as regards the export and import of cargo will be as given below:—

1. EXPORT OF CARGO.

The following requirements have to be fulfilled by exporters:—

i. To prepare the Shipping Bills. These are prepared by shippers of cargo. (Forms are available in the Customs).

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There are two kinds of Exort Shipping Bill forms. One is for "Dutiable" goods, and the other is for "free" or "Re-exportable" goods. As the sailing vessels generally carry duty-free goods on the coast, the form called "Free Goods; Indian Produce|or Foreign Produe to be Re-exported" has to be used. The Indian produce is carried free, and when foreign produce has to be re-exported, it is also to be carried free as it has already paid duty when imported, and even when stored in the Bonded Warehouse, duty may be called for before re-exporting.

In the "Free Goods" form, following information must be supplied: Particulars of cargo, packing and marks thereon, name of the vessel, captain, nationality, port of shipment and of discharge, value, country of final destination, and a declaration by the exporter that the statements made in the form are correct. The form has to be signed by the exporter or his agent. (These forms are available at the Customs Office).

ii. To get the Shipping Bill passed by the Customs authorities.

iii. To obtain the "Allow" remark on the shipping bill from the Preventive Officer at the gate of the Docks or Bunders from where the goods are to be shipped.

If examination is necessary, it is so mentioned on the Shipping Bill by the Customs Officer issuing the "Allow" remark. He would then remark "Allow after examination".

vi. To get the goods examined at the gate if there is a remark on the Shipping Bill to that effect.

v. To produce Export Permits from the related departments. (This is a wartime requirement).

vi. To pay Port charges in respect of the cargo.

Vii. To obtain Permit for exporting the goods from the 'Department of Civil Supplies, the Controller of Metals, or the Export Trade Controller. Permit from the last-named Officer is necessary in the case of export of goods to foreign territories. (Necessary Forms are available from the respective departments).

Viii. To submit a Declaration by the shipper that the goods shipped will be consumed at destination, and that they will not reach any enemy country. (This is a wartime requirement). This is done on Rs. 15 stamp paper.

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2. IMPORT OF CARGO.

The following formalities will have to be observed by the importers.:—

- i. To prepare a Bill of Entry.

  In this Bill, the importer has to state the name of the vessel, the name of the port or ports from which the cargo is imported, description of the cargo, the value of the cargo, the origin of goods, and such other relevant details. (Forms are available in the Customs).
- ii. To get it "noted" at the Customs, that is, to notify to the Customs by presenting the Bill of Entry that the goods described in the bill are imported.
- iii. To get the Bill of Entry passed by the Appraising Department of the Bombay Customs. (There are different Appraisers for different kinds of goods).
- iv. To get the goods examined in the Docks, and if the goods are assessable, duty will be charged by the Customs authorities.
- v. To pay duty in the Cash Department of the Customs whenever necessary.

  The question of duty arises in the case of goods from foreign countries. There are no duties on coastal imports of indigenous products. Goods from Indian States are also admitted free into British territory.
- vi. To produce Import Permits for importing the articles in question. (This is a wartime requirement).
- vii. To pay all the Dock or Harbour Charges (wharfage, etc.) to the Port Trust. (The relative form is obtainable from the Port Trust.)
- viii. To obtain permit from the Exchange Control Office. (Relative form is available from the office. This is also a wartime requirement).

After this, delivery of the goods can be obtained.

V. OTHER GENERAL INFORMATION.

Port Trust Charges have to be payable in Bombay both on ships and cargo.

1. The Port Trust Dues (Dock dues as they are called, as all the Docks in Bombay are owned by the Port Trust) on sailing vessels (not square-rigged) are as below:—

(1) Rs. 1-8-0 per day or part of the day (irrespective of the tonnage of the ship).

This charge is actually for the sailing vessels entering the Docks. But even if a vessel is berthed midstream in the harbour, the same charge has to be paid.

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(2) Dock Wharfage Rates on cargo imported from or exported to ports within the limits of India and Burma per sailing vessels are:—

i. Special Class goods: .. Rs. 1-2-0 per ton.

This "Special Class" consists of goods such as "cocoanuts, cotton, grain, wheat and wheat flour, groundnuts, sugar, sugar-candy, jaggery and molasses, passenger's baggage when passengers are travelling between Bombay and the Indian ports (including Burmese ports).

ii. Rice, seeds, machinery and commodities rated as Machinery, Motor Vehicles, Fuel Oil and Kerosine Oil in bulk.	At full rates as mentioned in Sec. I of "Scale of Rates" of the Bombay Port Trust.
iii. All other commodities.	At 1|3 less than the rates prescribed in Section I (above referred to).

All other charges regarding storage, rent, removals, demurrage, working on holidays, use of cranes, etc. are given in the above book called "Scale of Rates" published by the Bombay Port Trust. The same may be referred.

The "Bombay Port Rules", another publication of the Bombay Port Trust contains rules framed under:—

1. The Indian Ports Act.
2. Indian Port Health Rules.
3. Carbide of Calcium Rules.
4. Indian Explosives Act.
5. The Glanders and Farcy Act.
6. The Bombay Port Trust Act.

This book gives general regulations about the Port of Bombay and Docks, and contains rules regarding vessels entering or leaving or being moored in port, berths, stations and anchorage in the port, striking Masts and Yards etc.; removal and placing of anchors, vessels taking in particular kinds of cargo, keeping free passage, rules as to fishing nets, regulations for the use of mooring buoys, regulations for cargo, passenger and other boats, etc. regulations for the use of fires, lights, signals, employment of persons engaged in clearing vessels, employment of vessels, Customs Department information, etc.

Similarly, Port and Customs Rules and Regulations are published by most of the major ports on the coast, and they should be consulted.

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APPENDIX - D

SPECIMEN OF DELIVERY ORDER

Herebelow is a specimen of a Delivery Order (original portion) used by Messrs. Gokaldas & Sons of Ahmedabad and Bombay who have been engaged in the Sea-Cum-Raid traffic for several years. This Delivery Order is made out in four parts, one for the shipper or consignor (original), one for the office at transhipment port, one for the office at destination, and the fourth is for office record.

GOKALDAS & SONS.

ESTD. 1921

CLEARING & SHIPPING AGENTS.

Also at
OKHA, BHAVNAGAR,
BOMBAY, KARACHI,
MORVI.

Telegram:		Telephone:
GOKALSON:	AHMEDABAD.	296B
SONGOKAL:	BOMBAY.	21416

Head Office:
Balahanuman, AHMEDABAD.

ORIGINAL.

Date..............................

No. ....

To, ...

....

DELIVERY ORDER

Please deliver to the order of Messrs. .... following packages shipped from .... to ....

Packages	Marks & Nos.	Description	Quantity Net	Quantity Charged	Rate	Amount	D. Value

Against R/R No. .... of .... from .... to ....

to be Shipped from .... to ....

Strictly subject to Carriers Conditions at client's risks.

for Gokaldas & Sons.

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APPENDIX E.

—:o:—

SOME DISTANCES ON THE INDIAN COAST AND TO SOME FOREIGN PORTS

—o—

The distances given herebelow are in Nautical Miles and are only approximate.

The direct distance from Bombay or any other starting port to any destination port cannot be obtained merely by adding the inter-port distance between Bombay or any other starting port and the destination port. Direct distance will be obviously much less for a ship than if the ship has to proceed to that same destination via intermediate coast ports. For instance, the direct distance between Bombay and Cochin is 580 miles; but if a ship has to run via intermediate coast ports, the total distance run will be about 712 miles. So, mere addition of the interport distances given in the left hand column will not give the direct distance between any two distant ports. In some cases only direct distances are given as in the case of those from Karachi, Colombo, Madras, Calcutta and Rangoon.

One Nautical Mile = 1.16 Statute English Mile.

The author is aware that some revision may be necessary in some cases. But distances given here fairly represent the actual distances on the whole. They are taken from various published sources like Brown's Almanac, etc. to all of whom the author is indebted.

I. DISTANCES FROM BOMBAY (SOUTHERN AND EASTERN SECTION)

Interport Distance. In Nautical Miles.	Port.	Direct Distance from Bombay In Nautical Miles
13	Khanderi	13
9	Alibag	22
10	Revdanda	32
20	Janjira	46
20	Shriwardhan	62
8	Bankote (Hareshwar)	66
14	Harnai	72
18	Dabhol	85
12	Palshet	92
5	Boria	96
6	Jaygad	102
11	Tiveri	110
14	Ratnagiri	120
7	Ranpad	125
3	Purangad	128
12	Moosa Kazi	138

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Interport Distance In Nautical Miles.	Port	Direct Distance from Bombay In Nautical Miles
5	Jaitapur	143
5	Viziadurg	148
14	Deogad	160
13	Achra	172
9	Malvan	178
20	Vengurla	196
28 (from Vengurla)	Panjim	225
29 („ „) 6½	M|Goa)	226
45	Karwar	265
26	Tadri	285
7	Kumta	290
9	Honavar	297
22	Bhatkal	314
24	Kundapoor	334
19	Malpe	353
35	Mangalore	388
20	Kasaragod	406
56	Baliapatam	460
56	Cannanore	465
10	Tellicherry	472
10	Badagara	481
24	Calicut	504
5	Beypore	509
28	Ponnani	532
54	Cochin	580
4	Mattanchari	584
30	Alleppey	610
42	Quilon	652
34	Trivandrum	680
50	Cape Comorin	728
70	Tuticorin	812
151	Colombo	882
65	Galle	936
502	Pondicherry	1402
78	Madras	1448
265	Cocanada	1668
73	Vizagapatam	1718
122	Gopalpur	1820
320	Calcutta	2116
347	Chittagong	2145
173	Akyab	2046
321	Bassein	2058
248	Rangoon	2125
140	Moulmein	2165

II. DISTANCES FROM BOMBAY (NORTHERN AND WESTERN SECTION)

Interport Distance In Nautical Miles.	Port.	Direct Distance from Bombay. In Nautical Miles.
13	Vesawa	13
16	Bassein	29
18	Kelwa (Mahim)	44
22	Dahanu	64
14	Umbargaon	76
3	Sanjan	79
13	Daman	92
14	Bulsar	104
11	Bilimora	115
14	Navsari	128
18	Surat	145
26	Ankleshwar	170
6	Broach	176
34	Kavi	207
40	Cambay	235
30	Dholera	215
30	Bhavnagar	205
70	Mahuwa	149
25	Jaffrabad	148
28	Diu	158
17	Kodinar	175
25	Verawal	193
21	Mangrol	214
27	Navibandar	241
15	Porbandar	254
52	Dwarka	305
21	Okha	326
34	Salaya	352
25	Bedi Bunder	375
13	Jodya	388
25	Navlakhi	402
18	Kundla	406
14	Tuna	403
22	Mundra	381
24	Cutch-Mandvi	355
55	Jakhau	410
95	Karachi	505
132	Omara	596
70	Pasni	649
70	Guadur	696
134	Chahbar	785
150	Muscat	853

Interport Distance In Nautical Miles.	Port	Direct Distance from Bombay. In Nautical Miles.
134	Jashk	940
131	Bandar Abbas	1066
42	Henjam	1055
61	Dubai	1122
79	Linga	1112
245	Bahrain	1350
182	Bushire	1406
152	Koweitt	1527
63	Shatt-al-Arab Bar	1502
23	Fao	1525
26	Abadan	1551
12	Mahommera	1563
18	Basrah	1581
20	Nahromah	1601
	Aden	1650
	Zanzibar	2517
	Mombassa	2387

III. BOMBAY HARBOUR ZONE (SOUTHWEST)

Interport Distance	(In Nautical Miles)	Distance from Bombay
8	Mandva	8
3	Karanja	11
2	Revas	12
10	Dharmatar	22
13	Nagothna	35

IV. BOMBAY HARBOUR ZONE (NORTHWEST)

nterport Distance	(In Nautical Miles)	Distance from Bombay
6	Uran (Mora)	6
3	Elephanta	8
2	Nhova	10
6 (from Elephanta)	Ulwa	14
7	Panwel	21

V. DISTANCES IN NAUTRICAL MILES FROM BOMBAY TO CREEK PORTS OFF THE COAST PORTS BETWEEN BOMBAY AND MARMAGAO

Coastal Port	Distance from Coastal Port	Creek Port	Direct Distance from Bombay
Revdanda	27	Roha	59
Janjira	20	Mhasala	66
Bankote (Hareshwar)	30	Mahad	96
Dabhol	22	Khed	107
Dabhol	27	Chiplun (Govalkote)	112
Jayagad	30	Sangameshwar	132
Jaitapur	25	Rajapur	168
Vijayadurg	30	Kharepatan	178

VI. DISTANCES FROM KARACHI TO NORTH KATHIAWAR PORTS

Interport Distance. In Nautical Mailes.	Port.	Direct Distance from Karachi In Nautical Miles.
197	Cutch-Mandvi	197
24	Mundra	217
22	Tuna	235
14	Kundla	245
18	Navlakhi	246
25	Jodya	230
13	Bedi	218
25	Salaya	198
34	Okha	182
28	Cutch-Mandvi	197

VII. OTHER DIRECT DISTANCES FROM KARACHI (EASTERN SECTION)

From	To	Direct Distance from Karachi In Nautical Miles
Karachi	Dwarka	200
	Porbandar	256
	Navibandar	271
	Mangrol	298
	Verawal	319
	Kodinar	342
	Diu	358
	Jaffrabad	383
	Mahuwa	409
	Bhavnagar	479
	Cambay	510
	Broach	482
	Surat	481
	Bombay	505
	Marmagoa	725
	Mangalore	840
	Calicut	947
	Cochin	1021
	Alleppey	1045
	Quilon	1080
	Trivandrum	1114
	Tuticorin	1264
	Colombo	1337
	Madras	1810
	Calcutta	2560
	Chittagong	2691
	Rangoon	2571
	Moulmein	2611

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VIII. OTHER DISTANCES FROM KARACHI (WESTERN SECTION)

From	To	Direct Distance from Karachi. In Nautical Miles.
Karachi	Guadur	260
	Muscat	480
	Bandar Abbas	550
	Koweitt	975
	Mahommera	1002
	Basrah	1012
	Aden	1110
	Zanzibar	2540
	Mombassa	2400

IX. DISTANCES FROM COLOMBO, MADRAS, CALCUTTA AND RANGOON

I. Distances from Colombo

From	To	Direct Distance In Nautical Miles.
Colombo	Cochin	317
	Bombay	882
”	Madras	580
	Cocanada	802
	Vizagapatam	875
	Gopalpur	1002
	Calcutta	1231
	Chittagong	1365
	Rangoon	1234
	Penang	1277
	Singapore	1577
	Bangkok	2412

II. Distances from Madras

Madras	Cocanada	259
	Vizagapatam	330
	Gopalpur	427
	Calcutta	759
	Fort Blair	704
	Rangoon	997
	Penang	1278
	Singapore	1578
	Bangkok	2413

III. Direct Distances from Calcutta

Calcutta	Chittagong	330
	Akyab	390
	Rangoon	737

From	To	Direct Distance In Nautica Miles.
	Penang	1350
	Singapore	1650
	Bangkok	2485
„	Gopalpur	320
	Vizagapatam	417
	Cocanada	485

IV. Direct Distances from Rangoon

Rangoon	Port Blair	336
	Penang	738
	Singapore	1038
	Bangkok	1913
„	Akyab	455
	Chittagong	595
	Gopalpur	744

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APPENDIX F.

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SEA-GOING TRAFFIC OTHER THAN THAT BY STEAMERS, THAT IS, BY SAILING VESSELS.

Area	Imports.	Exports
Sind—Bombay	2,500 tons.	3,000 tons.
„ —Cutch-Kathiawar.	19,000 „	1,75,000 „
„ —Gujerat.	3,000 „	12,000 „
„ —Konkan.	500 „	4,000 „
„ —Kanara & Malabar.	4,000 „	9,000 „
Kathiawar—Gujerat.	38,000 „	16,000 „
„ —Konkan.	10,000 „	3,500 „
„ —Local.	42,000 „	35,000 „
„ —Kanara & Malabar.	45,000 „	5,000 „
Bombay—Kathiawar.	50,500 „	1,21,000 „
„ —Gujerat.	44,5000 „	37,000 „
„ —Konkan.	76,000 „	56,000 „
„ —Kanara & Malabar.	1,92,000 „	74,000 „
Gujerat—Konkan.	6,000 „	13,000 „
„ —Kanara & Malabar.	3,000 „	2,000 „
„ —Local.	9,000 „	9,000 „
Konkan—Kanara & Malabar.	37,000 „	85,500 „
—Local.	1,13,000 „	37,500 „
Malabar—Local.	15,500 „	28,000 „
Total ..	7,10,500 tons.	7,25,000 tons.

Thus the total approximate traffic by sailing vessels in one season is about 14,35,500 tons. This also represents the average approximate traffic of each port on the west cost up to Cochin and Alleppey per seanson.

APPENDIX G.

ROUTE SYSTEM AND FIXED RATES.

Since the main portion of this book had gone to the Press, the Government of India have fixed rates of freight for various kinds of cargo which usually moves in the various routes on the West Coast of India.

The rates have been fixed by the Controller of Indian Shipping exercising powers delegated to him by the Government of India, War Transport Department, in consulation with the Country Craft Advisory Committee situated at Bombay. The Government Notification giving a list of the rates fixed for various types of cargo in the different routes appeared in newspapers on September 6, 1944. The author of this book happens to be a member of that Advisory Committee. The author's stand in this connection is made clear in Chapter XI. He is of the opinion that in principle one should welcome a regime of fixed rates; but the problem is beset with so many difficulties and formalities that it would be impracticable to enforce these rates in practice upon every shipowner—of whom there are about 3500—and at every port under the present circumstances. Government intervention would be necessary at every stage and at every port, and it is doubtful whether the present government machinery can cope with the problem. When demand for ships is high, the shipowners might ask for some more inducement in one form or another; and when demand for ships is low, the shippers would ask for some inducement for themselves in order that they should give their cargo to one or the other shipowner. The main difficulty is with regard to the illiteracy of the majority of owners, diversity of their ports of registration and habitation vastness of the number of owners and the seasonal employment of ships. The last one specially is of great importance to the owners, because they have to make the most of the situation in a few months time. These obstacles are insurmountable in most cases, and the author has been sceptical about the success of the system of fixed rates. Therefore shipping agents for the various routes should have been appointed for government and military cargo to start with, by calling for tenders in June, and rates should have been fixed on the basis of those tenders only for government and military cargo to be moved within the various routes on the coast. At the most rail-cum-sea cargo should have been entrusted to them. The public cargo should have been left alone to be handled by other shipping agents. But even in the case of this cargo, there

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was the reasonable expectation that it would have followed the government rates, leading ultimately to an automatic creation of standard rates which in time could have been adopted as fixed rates. Such automatic adjustment would have saved the confusion and hardship which is likely to be created by the system introduced since September, 1944.

However, since the government have already come to a decision on the point, the author's attitude is for giving a fair trial to the system of fixed rates at least for one season. If the system works satisfactorily in practice, it will be all well and good. But even if it does not, it will enable us to consider the difficulties and grievances both of the owners and shippers, as well as to find out the defects in the system, so that steps may be taken to revise the arrangement in the light of the experience gained during the season. And taking the long view that it is desirable to fix rates at one time or another—which view the author has taken—efforts made at one stage or another should be appreciated. From that point of view only, the author looks upon the system of fixed rates as now introduced by government, although it is defective in many ways, for giving it a fair trial. It is earnestly hoped that the route agents will wholeheartedly cooperate with the government in working the system successfully and to the satisfaction of the shipowners, crew and brokers.

The Notification giving the fixed rates, names of Route Agents, and other related matters is as follows:—

NOTIFICATION

No. 3-G(15)|44—In execise of the powers conferred on the Central Government by sub-rule (2), read with sub-rule (5), of rule 89 of the Defence of India Rules and delegated to the Controller of Indian Shipping by the notification of the Government of India in the War Transport Department, No. 6-IWT(28)|44, dated the 17th August, 1944, I hereby make the following order:—

1. No person shall hire any country craft, for the purpose of transforting goods or persons by any of the routes specified below except through the agency of the Route Agent specified against that route:—

(i) Karachi-Bombay and vice versa.	The Indian Country Craft Shipping Syndicate, Khori Garden, Karachi.
(ii) Karachi—any port in Cutch, Kathiawar or Gujarat and vice versa.	
iii) (a) Karachi-Mormugoa and vice versa.	
(b) Karachi—any port south of Mormugoa up to Tuticorin and vice versa but not including inter-port traffic between Mormugoa and Tuticorin.	

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(iv) (a) Bombay-Kalyan (including all creek ports) and vice versa.	The Bombay Steam Navigation Co., Ltd. Bombay.
(b) Bombay-Panvel (including all creek ports) and vice versa.	
(c) Bombay-Alleppey (including any intermediate port) and vice versa.	
(d) Bombay— any port in Bhavnagar State and vice versa.	
(v) (a) Cutch- Kathiawar- Gujarat-Bombay (including intermediate ports) and vice versa, but excluding route (iv) (d) above.	Vishram Khimji, Bombay.
(b) Cutch, Kathiawar and Gujarat ports to any ports south of Mormugoa up to Tuticorin and vice versa but not including inter-port traffic between Mormugoa and Tuticorin.	
(c) Porbandar and Okha to Ceylon.	
(vi) (a) Cochin- Tuticorin including all intermediate ports and vice versa.	1. S. & C. Machado.
(b) Tuticorin—any Ceylon ports	

2. The restriction contained in paragraph 1 shall not apply to—

(a) the hiring of country craft for transporting cargo to Africa or the Persian Gulf, for transporting sand in the Bombay harbour area or for fishing; and

(b) the hiring of lighters ordinarily used in harbours and roadsteads for shipment and landing of goods from steamers and from craft which cannot come alongside the jetty.

3. Where any country craft or any part of the space or accommodation in any country craft is hired for the purpose of transporting goods of the type specified in column 1 of the Schedule hereto annexed by the routes specified therein—

(i) the rates of total freight (including agent's commission and brokerage) payable by the shipper for such hiring shall be as specified in column 5 of the said Schedule; and

(ii) the rates of agent's commission and brokerage in respect of such hiring shall be as specified in column 4 and 3 respectively.

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RATES OF FREIGHT FOR THE COUNTRY CRAFT SEASON 1944-45.

1	2	3	4	5
Routes and Commodities	Net Freight Rs. a. p.	Brokerage Rs. a. p.	Agent's Commission Rs. a. p.	Total Freight Rs. a. p.
I. (a) Karachi to Okha, Bedi & Navlakhi.				
Cotton	2 11 2	0 2 2	0 2 8	3 0 0
Cotton seeds	11 11 0	0 9 4	0 11 8	13 0 0
General and food-grains	10 12 7	0 8 8	0 10 9	12 0 0
(b) Karachi to Porbandar & Veraval				
Cotton	2 14 9	0 2 4	0 2 11	3 4 0
Cotton seeds	14 6 1	0 11 6	0 14 5	16 0 0
General and food-grains	13 7 9	0 10 9	0 13 6	15 0 0
(c) Karachi to Bhavnagar				
Cotton	4 4 4	0 3 5	0 4 3	4 12 0
Cotton seeds	15 4 6	0 12 3	0 15 3	17 0 0
General and food-grains	15 4 6	0 12 3	0 15 3	17 0 0
II. (a) Karachi to Bombay				
Cotton	3 9 6	0 2 11	0 3 7	4 0 0
General and food-grains	12 9 4	0 10 1	0 12 7	14 0 0
Timber (Logs & Scantlings)	26 15 6	1 5 6	1 11 0	30 0 0
(b) Karachi to Mormugao				
Foodgrains	25 2 8	1 4 2	1 9 2	28 0 0
Cotton	5 13 6	0 4 8	0 5 10	6 8 0
III. Karachi to Malabar				
Cotton	5 13 6	0 4 8	0 5 10	6 8 0
General and food-grains	26 15 6	1 5 6	1 11 0	30 0 0
IV. Karachi to Alleppey & Trivandrum				
Food- (Alleppey grains (	31 7 4	1 9 2	1 15 6	35 0 0
(Trivandrum	35 15 3	1 12 9	2 4 0	40 0 0

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V. (a) Cutch & Kathiawar (Okha, Bedi, Navlakhi) to Karachi				
Oils in drums	8 15 10	0 7 2	0 9 0	10 0 0
Oils and general cargo	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
Cement	6 4 9	0 5 0	0 6 3	7 0 0
Wool	1 12 9	0 1 5	0 1 10	2 0 0
Hay	3 9 6	0 2 11	0 3 7	4 0 0
Glassware	10 12 7	0 8 8	0 10 9	12 0 0
Groundnuts shelled	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
Groundnuts unshelled	10 12 7	0 8 8	0 10 9	12 0 0
Chillies	10 12 7	0 8 8	0 10 9	12 0 0
(b) Kathiawar (Porbandar, Veraval) to Karachi				
Oils in drums	10 12 7	0 8 8	0 10 9	12 0 0
Oils and general cargo	8 15 10	0 7 2	0 9 0	10 0 0
Cement	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
(c) Bhavnagar to Karachi				
Oils in drums	15 11 8	0 12 7	0 15 9	17 8 0
General cargo	13 7 9	0 10 9	0 13 6	15 0 0
VI. (a) Cutch-Kathiawar (Okha, Bedi & Navlakhi) to Bombay				
Cement	8 1 5	0 6 6	0 8 1	9 0 0
Groundnuts shelled	9 14 2	0 7 11	0 9 11	11 0 0
Groundnuts unshelled	14 6 1	0 11 6	0 14 5	16 0 0
General cargo	9 14 2	0 7 11	0 9 11	11 0 0
Glassware	14 6 1	0 11 6	0 14 5	16 0 0
Chillies	14 6 1	0 11 6	0 14 5	16 0 0
Wool	2 11 2	0 2 2	0 2 8	3 0 0
Cotton	2 11 2	0 2 2	0 2 8	3 0 0
(b) Kathiawar (Veraval, Porbandar) to Bombay				
Cement	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
Groundnuts shelled	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
Groundnuts unshelled	10 12 7	0 8 8	0 10 9	12 0 0
General cargo	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
(c) Bhavnagar to Bombay				
Seeds and general cargo	8 15 10	0 7 2	0 9 0	10 0 0
(d) Kathiawar to Colombo				
Cement	40 7 3	2 0 4	2 8 5	45 0 0

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VII. (a) Gujarat Ports to Karachi				
Timber logs	26 15 6	1 5 6	1 11 0	30 0 0
Timber scantlings	22 7 8	1 1 11	1 6 5	25 0 0
General Cargo	13 7 9	0 10 9	0 13 6	15 0 0
(b) Gujarat Ports to Cutch-Kathiawar				
(i) South (Veraval, Porbander & Bhavnagar)				
General cargo & foodgrains	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
Cotton seeds	8 1 5	0 6 6	0 8 1	9 0 0
Timber logs	12 9 4	0 10 1	0 12 7	14 0 0
Cotton	1 12 9	0 1 5	0 1 10	1 0 0
(ii) North (Okha, Bedi & Navlakhi)				
Cotton seeds	9 14 2	0 7 11	0 9 11	11 0 0
Timber logs	16 2 11	0 12 11	1 0 2	18 0 0
Cotton	2 3 10	0 1 10	0 2 4	2 8 0
General cargo and foodgrains	9 14 2	0 7 11	0 9 11	11 0 0
(c) Gujarat to Bombay				
Bricks	17 15 9	0 14 4	1 1 11	20 0 0
Timber logs	17 15 9	0 14 4	1 1 11	20 0 0
Timber scantlings	14 6 1	0 11 6	0 14 5	16 0 0
General cargo	8 1 5	0 6 6	0 8 1	9 9 0
Cotton	2 3 10	0 1 10	0 2 4	2 8 0
VIII. Bombay to Karachi				
Cotton piecegoods	13 7 9	0 10 9	0 13 6	15 0 0
Oils in drums	15 4 6	0 12 3	0 15 3	17 0 0
General cargo	13 7 9	0 10 9	0 13 6	15 0 0
Timber	26 15 6	1 5 6	1 11 0	30 0 0
IX. (a) Bombay to Cutch & Kathiawar North (Okha, Bedi, Navlakhi)				
Cotton piecegoods	13 0 7	0 10 5	0 13 0	14 8 0
General cargo	13 0 7	0 10 5	0 13 0	14 8 0
Coal	13 15 0	0 11 1	0 13 11	15 8 0
(b) Bombay to Kathiawar South (Veraval, Porbandar, Bhavnagar)				
Cotton piecegoods	10 5 5	0 8 3	0 10 4	11 8 0
General cargo	10 12 7	0 8 8	0 10 9	12 0 0
Coal	11 3 9	0 9 0	0 11 3	12 8 0

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X.	**Bombay to Gujarat Ports.**				
	General cargo	8 1 5	0 6 6	0 8 1	9 0 0
	Oils in drums	10 12 7	0 8 8	0 10 9	12 0 0
	Loose cocoanuts in Husk	13 7 9	0 10 9	0 13 6	15 0 0
XI.	**Bombay to Konkan (including Creek Ports)**				
	General & food-grains	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
	Salt	6 4 9	0 5 0	0 6 3	7 0 0
XII.	**(a) Bombay to Mormugao**				
	General cargo	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
	Salt	0 4 1	0 0 2	0 0 3	0 4 6
	(b) Bombay to Kanara				
	General	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
	Oil	8 15 10	0 7 2	0 9 0	10 0 0
	Salt	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
XIII.	**Bombay to Malabar**				
	Cotton	2 0 5	0 1 7	0 2 0	2 4 0
	General cargo & foodgrains	8 15 10	0 7 2	0 9 0	10 0 0
	Salt	8 15 10	0 7 2	0 9 0	10 0 0
XIV.	**Bombay to Colombo**				
	Military Stores	31 7 4	1 9 2	1 15 6	35 0 0
XV.	**(a) Kalyan, Panvel, Pen and Harbour Ports to Bombay**				
	Bricks	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
	Foodgrains & general	4 0 8	0 3 3	0 4 1	4 8 0
	Charcoal	6 4 9	0 5 0	0 6 3	7 0 0
	(b) Bombay to Kalyan				
	Tiles	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
XVI.	**(a) Goa & Konkan to Bombay (excluding Harbour Ports)**				
	Charcoal	8 5 1	0 6 6	0 8 1	9 0 0
	General cargo	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
	Timber	26 15 6	1 5 6	1 11 0	30 0 0
	(b) Kanara to Bombay				
	Timber (logs)	29 10 7	1 7 9	1 13 8	33 0 0
	Timber (scantlings)	20 10 10	1 0 6	1 4 8	23 0 0

XVII.	**Malabar to Karachi**				
	Timber logs	53 14 11	2 11 2	3 5 11	60 0 0
	Timber scantlings	35 15 3	1 12 9	2 4 0	40 0 0
	Tiles	53 14 11	2 11 2	3 5 11	60 0 0
	Coir	52 2 3	2 9 8	3 4 1	58 0 0
	Cocoanuts in shell	2 11 2	0 2 2	0 2 8	3 0 0
	General cargo	26 15 6	1 5 6	1 11 0	30 0 0
XVIII.	**Malabar to Kathiawar Ports**				
	Timber logs	40 7 3	2 0 4	2 8 5	45 0 0
	Timber scantlings	26 15 6	1 5 6	1 11 0	30 0 0
	Tiles	40 7 3	2 0 4	2 8 5	45 0 0
	Coir	22 7 8	1 1 11	1 6 5	25 0 0
	General cargo	22 7 8	1 1 11	1 6 5	25 0 0
XIX.	**Malabar to Bombay**				
	Timber logs	40 7 3	2 0 4	2 8 5	45 0 0
	Timber scantlings	22 7 8	1 1 11	1 6 5	25 0 0
	Tiles (from Mangalore)	35 0 11	1 12 1	2 3 0	39 0 0
	Tiles (from Calicut)	40 7 3	2 0 4	2 8 5	45 0 0
	Cocoanuts in shell	1 12 9	0 1 5	0 1 10	2 0 0
	Mattings (coir)	19 12 5	0 15 10	1 3 9	22 0 0
	General cargo	19 12 5	0 15 10	1 3 9	22 0 0
	Coir matting from Alleppey	24 4 4	1 3 5	1 8 3	27 0 0
	Cotton	4 0 8	0 3 3	0 4 1	4 8 0
XX.	**Cochin to Travancore**				
	Foodgrains	7 3 1	0 5 9	0 7 2	8 0 0
XXI.	**Malabar to Mormugao**				
	Tiles (from Mangalore)	22 7 8	1 1 11	1 6 5	25 0 0
	Tiles (from Calicut)	27 13 9	1 6 4	1 11 11	31 0 0
	Timber logs	32 5 9	1 9 11	2 0 4	36 0 0
	Timber scantings	18 14 1	0 15 1	1 2 10	21 0 0
	Coir matting	16 2 11	0 12 11	1 0 2	18 0 0
XXII.	**Malabar to Colombo**				
	Tiles (from Mangalore)	61 2 0	3 0 11	3 13 1	68 0 0
	Tiles (from Calicut)	53 14 11	2 11 2	3 5 11	60 0 0
	Timber logs (from) Mangalore	53 14 11	2 11 2	3 5 11	60 0 0
	Timber logs (from Calieut)	44 15 0	2 4 0	2 13 0	50 0 0

Timber scantlings (from Mangalore)	34 2 6	1 11 4	2 2 2	38 0 0
Timber scantlings (from Calicut)	28 12 3	1 7 0	1 12 9	32 0 0
Coir matting (from Mangalore)	26 15 6	1 5 6	1 11 0	30 0 0
Coir matting (from Calicut)	23 6 0	1 2 8	1 7 4	26 0 0
Salted fish	23 6 0	1 2 8	1 7 4	26 0 0
XXIII. Tuticorin to Malabar				
Salt (Manakudy to Cochin)	8 15 10	0 2 7	0 9 0	10 0 0
Salt (Manakudy to ports excluding Cochin)	8 1 5	0 6 6	0 8 1	9 0 0
Salt (Tuticorin to Malabar)	12 2 2	0 9 8	0 12 2	13 8 0
Mineral Sand (Colachel to Cochin)	10 12 7	0 8 8	0 10 9	12 0 0
Mineral Sand (Chevarai to Cochin)	8 8 8	0 6 10	0 8 6	9 8 0
Cotton, Senna bales and Ballots (Tuticorin to Cochin)	22 7 8	1 1 11	1 6 5	25 0 0
XXIV. Tuticorin to Ceylon ports				
Cement to Jaffna	16 2 11	0 12 11	1 0 2	18 8 0
Cement to Trincomalee	19 5 3	0 15 6	1 3 3	21 8 0
Cement to Colombo	19 5 3	0 15 6	1 3 3	21 8 0

Note 1:—The above rates are per ton, weight or measurement, according to the nature of the cargo except in the following cases:—

(i) Cotton ..	Per bale of about 400 lbs.
(ii) Timber (log & scantings ..	Per ton of 50 cubic feet.
(iii) Wool ..	Per bale of about 500 lbs.
(iv) Hay ..	Per bale.
(v) Bricks..	Per 1000.
(vi) Loose cocoanuts in husk ..	Per 1000.
(vii) Salt (Bombay to Mormugoa) ..	Per Bengal maund.
(viii) Charcoal ..	Per ton of 100 cubic feet.
(ix) Tiles ..	Per 1000.

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(x) Cocoanuts in shell .. Per bag of 100 to 300 according to the size of the cocoanuts.

(xi) Cotton, Senna bales and ballots (Tuticorin to Cochin) .. ..Per ton of 40 cubic feet.

Note 2:—The rates of total freight are exclusive of lighterage and shore-handling charges but inclusive of charges for building or breaking the stowage.

L. T. CHOLAP,
Controller of Indian Shipping.

New Delhi, the 3th August, 1944.

This Notification was subsequently modified by the Controller, whereby the routes originating from Karachi were divided into three parties who had originally agreed to form the Karachi Syndicate known as "Indian Country Craft Shipping Syndicate". The Division is as below:—

Route.	Route Agent.
1. Karachi-Kathiawar & vice versa.	Ratansi Laljee.
2. Karachi-Bombay & vice verso.	Haji Jetha Gokal.
3. Karachi Malabar & vice versa.	Madhavji Vishram & Co.

It will be noted that generally speaking the above rates in the Notification conform nearly to the rates that we have suggested in Chapter XI of this book. Even the classification of cargo and the various routes mentioned in the above schedule practically coincide with those in this book.

However, some variation will be found necessary here and there, as some rates are fixed somewhat lower than what they should be. In these days, the cost of maintenance and construction has gone up so high that these low rates will not be remunerative if the ships continue to keep up their practice of running in the same route. Revision would therefore be necessary in those cases in which hardship is caused to owners. At the same time interest of trade and alternative competition by railways and steamships have to be watched. Revision, if any, has to be effected after taking into account all these factors.

THE ROUTE SYSTEM AND ROUTE AGENTS

The Route System as it is introduced now has the following essential features, basic assumptions and implications:—

1. That the Route Agent shall provide ships for all cargo within the route entrusted to him—civil, military and government cargo.
2. That he will charge and pay freight at the rates fixed by the government.

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3. That the rates fixed will be the same throughout the season.
4. That the Route Agent will remain responsible to the government, military and the public, for the safety of the cargo shipped by the vessels in his route.
5. That he will see that every ship is put to its maximum use.
6. That every shipper, shipowner and broker will have to deal through him only so far as their respective business is concerned.
7. That he gets commission for his services at the rate which is about 6 to 6¼% which is included in the overall rate of freight now fixed.
8. That the Route Agent becomes the Sole Agent for the transportation of cargo within his route.
9. That all public cargo within the route must also pass through him alone, and he must earn his commission thereon.
10. That he receives freight in the first instance and pays to the shipowners and brokers their respective shares as freight and brokerage after retaining his own commission.
11. That he has his organisation, offices and agencies at all the ports of shipment and ports of discharge within the route.
12. That he is thoroughly acquainted with the sailing ship traffic conditions within the route and is able to handle the traffic efficiently.
13. That he is financially sound.
14. That he has control over sufficient number of ships for the purposes of traffic within the route.
15. That the existing brokers must necessarily be employed by shippers and shipowners and that brokerage at the rate of about 5% is to be paid to them.

Other features include:—

16. That all shipowners, shippers and brokers accept unconditionally the system as well as the fixed rates.

    For that purpose power is taken by the Controller of Indian Shipping under Rule 89 under the Defence of India Act for introducing the system and for fixing rates thereunder.
17. That ships may be requisitioned for service whenever required in certain directions as required.
18. That crew may be retained in service if necessary under the Essential Services Rules.

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19. That the Route Agent secures arrangement with the railway administrations for through booking of cargo.

The system, however, is open to several points of criticism. We may group these points in three or four categories. Those relating to the appointment of Route Agents and their Routes may be grouped as Group I; those relating to Rates as Group II; those relating to shipowners, shippers and brokers as Group III; those relating to general matters as Group IV. Let us consider these as below—

GROUP I: APPOINTMENT OF ROUTE AGENTS AND THEIR ROUTES:

1. Some routes are too big and several such are assigned to a single agent. This is mainly true of the Agents appointed for Bombay, and for Kathiawar, Cutch and Gujerat under whom several routes are as if huddled together. Vast areas and so many routes are placed under one Agent for operation.

This will undermine efficiency, will lead to congestion of traffic and the Route Agent will not be able to pay sufficient attention to the working of the route.

The congested routes should have been divided into separate natural routes which already exist and placed under different agents, as was done subsequently with Karachi routes. The Karachi route was originally placed under one syndicate; but later divided into three routes and placed separately under three different agents according to the natural channels into which traffic flows. The same system should have been adopted so far as the routes from Bombay and Kathiawar are concerned. Too big areas under one Agency will not cater for efficiency and Agents will not be able to cope with the work in all its aspects.

2. Selection of Agents:

If age-old experience of the sailing vessel traffic was to be the criterion, then some agents should not have been there. If this experience was not the criterion and actual work done for the government was the basis, then some others should not have been there. And the omission of parties who worked for government during the last two seasons is rather surprising and likely to be resented.

It is specially to be noted that most of the agents now appointed, excepting one or two, had hardly done much work for the government and military departments. And yet they are appointed as agents, while those who had helped the government from the very inception of the Country Craft Organisation Office in December, 1942, and had thereby acquired the requisite experience by moving large volume of cargo are neglected and ignored entirely. This is very unfair, even unjust, to those who had legitimate claims for selection because of their past assistance to the government, and their past experience gained under wartime conditions. The government thereby loses the benefit of their experience on the one hand, and will have to put up with the mistakes, if any, committed by some of the route agents for want of such experience. Side-tracking such experienced agents and appointing new ones who had no such claims of moving large volume of cargo in various directions on account of government and thereby gaining the requisite experience, is unfair to the former. It is hoped, however, that this injustice done to those who had supported the government in the past will at least be removed during the next season. In justice to all, tenders should have been called for, and those of the eligible tenderers who offered to charge the lowest or reasonable rate of commission should have been accepted after due regard to their experience and past work for the government.

GROUP II. RATES.

I. Rates fixed in some cases are low as on the Bombay-Kanara and Bombay-Marmagoa routes. Similarly, some of the rates on the Gujerat-Malabar and Kathiawar-Malabar Routes are low. Revision is necessary after getting opinions of the shipowners and shippers.

2. Uniform rates are fixed for a group of ports irrespective of distance. Thereby, ships calling at ports nearer to port of shipment are benefitted whereas ships calling at ports at longer distances are at a disadvantage. For instance, one uniform rate of Rs. 8 per ton is fixed from Bombay for ports commencing from Bankote which is only 64 miles from Bombay to Mangalore on the Kanara coast which is about 390 miles from Bombay.

These inequalities must be removed and rates should be so revised as to be placed on the graduated distances by grouping only a few ports in close proximity to one another under one rate if the traffic of such ports is limited. Wherever there is regular flow of traffic, there should be a separate rate.

3. Separate rates should have been fixed for three diflerent periods of the season during which rates usually rise or fall according to the natural movement of cargo. These three periods as explained in this book (Chapter XI) are (1) September-October-November, (2) December-January-February, (3) March-April-May. Even the month of May may be segregated from the last period.

Thus the natural trend of rates should have been followed so that ships would have got the rates they have been getting so far. When one uniform rate is fixed for the season, shipowners would be attracted in the slack season when many ships lie idle for want of cargo. But when there is a large demand for ships, they might ask for higher inducement in one form or another.

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The effect will be that difficulties are likely to accentuate in the traffic from February onwards when more ships are in demand to haul the increased volume of cargo which is then available. It is at that time that Black Market is likely to rule in full swing.

This would have been avoided by fixing rates on a graduated scale for each period of three months as shown above.

It is true that we have given in Chapetr XI, only one rate for the whole season for any one type of cargo in any one route. But those average rates are given as the result of actual, working in the three periods. They are given as mere calculations to indicate as to how the shipping agents might tender if they are called upon to quote rates for government and military cargo. They would also serve as a guide for fixing rates by government enactment at any future date after long experience. But neither the owners nor the shippers would like to have such fixed rates for the entire season. They would prefer rates graduated for the three periods. A transport agent who contracts to carry government and military cargo at an uniform rate throughout the season arms himself with sufficient number of ships and pays to the shipowners or crew according to the rates prevailing in the market at the time of actual transport. So he can afford to quote one uniform rate for government and military cargo. But usually shipowners would like the rates paid to them as prevailing in the three periods of the season.

4. The rates fixed should have been enforced only in the case of government and military cargo, and the public cargo should have been left alone. The latter rates would have been indirectly controlled by the rates fixed for the government and military cargo.

5. The rates should have been fixed for government and military cargo by calling tenders in June 1944 from different shipping agents from all over the West Coast of India, at least, from the seventeen shipping agents approved by the Government of India last season (1943).

This procedure would have given a definite idea of the conditions prevailing at different ports and of the trend of rates at those ports. It would have also given a better basis for fixing rates than depending only on the experience of the members of the Country Craft Advisory Committee composed of members from Bombay alone. If tenders were called in June or July and a summary thereof was placed before the Committee, the information would have helped the members to arrive at a more approximate rate to be fixed.

6. On the whole, there would always remain a doubt whether one uniform rate for the whole season would be scrupulously accepted by shipowners. Rates graduated for the three periods had greater chance of acceptance.

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Perhaps in the case of government and military cargo, shipowners may be compelled to follow the fixed rates. But in the case of public cargo, bargaining between owners and shippers is likely to follow depending upon the circumstances in each case.

GROUP III.: SHIPOWNERS, SHIPPERS AND BROKERS

1. These important units of the sailing ship organisation would be entirely at the mercy of the route agents. None of them have alternative choice of employment or chartering. If the agents were appointed only for government and military cargo, then all of them would have got alternative choice. Thereby the element of competition would have been kept up, and there would have been no possibility of the growth of a Black Market.

But under the present system, all these functionaries of the organisation will be dependent entirely on the route agent, and they will be deprived of their own initiative in the traffic which would thereby lose the benefit of their knowledge needed for the development of the traffic on organised basis. And now the route agent alone becomes their mentor and friend, guide and philosopher. He becomes their dictator as it were. This would have been avoided if public cargo were left to move of its own free will.

We have explained this point fully in Chapter XVIII entitled 'Carrying Agencies'.

2. Their relationship with their established agents at various ports, tindels and clients will now be seriously dislocated.

The ships at different ports will come under the jurisdiction of the agents of the route agents at those ports. Thus, the agents and brokers of the shipowners will not be in touch with the ships. Besides, such agents and brokers will not get any remuneration for the services, and so they would not render same as shipowners' representatives, as the rates of freight given to the owners do not provide for such payment. These valuable connections which the owners must have built up through ages will therefore be disturbed or even broken, and it will be difficult for the owners to rebuild them after the war. And if the owners desire to maintain their relations with such agents, they will have to pay them out of their own pocket, as the rates of freight, being low, will not permit payment out of freight.

3. The shipowners will find the present rates decidedly low in view of the high cost of living and maintenance. The rates may be suitable for them for the middle period; but they will be considered by them as definitely low for the initial and last periods, during which they make up for their losses in the slack period (the middle period).

4. Since the fixed rates include brokerage, the shipowners, for instance, on the Konkan Coast who had not been paying such

brokerage before the issue of the Notification, will be compelled to give it to brokers out of the low rates of freight now fixed.

GROUP IV. GENERAL:

In the first place the very object of introducing the system of Route Agency is being defeated by the functions now alloted to the Route Agents.

One of the objects of the appointment of Route Agents was that, besides facilitating transport of the government and military cargo, he should attend to the small consignments that await at almost every port, if there is no other shipping agent in the route to handle this private traffic. In fact no other shipping agent can now come forward, as there is no provision for his commission in the fixed rates over and above that payable to the route agent. There are always at every port small consignments from several shippers carried to particular ports. Such shippers cannot offer full-load cargo for one vessel for any one port. Moreover owing to the restrictions and congestion on railway booking, such shippers must perforce divert to the sea such cargo as used to go by rail. It was intended that the Route Agents would berth separate ships for different ports and lift such small consignments from shippers for those ports if other shipping agents would not like to undertake this. But we now understand that this does not form part of the duty of the route agents under the new system. Shipowners have to find their own cargo and have to pay to the brokers their brokerage, and yet in addition they have to pay to the route agent his commission for receiving practically no service in return. The route agent does not even guarantee them full cargo for their ships within a reasonable time, nor does he guarantee a quick despatch to their ships.

The shipper of cargo on the other hand has greater difficulty than before, since he has lost the services of those shipping agents and brokers who till lately used to berth ships and lift his small parcels of cargo on payment of a small commission, and the route agent will not guarantee to lift his small parcels. And yet the shipper is forced to pay him commission as well as brokerage to the brokers which are included in the rate of freight, while only the net freight goes to the owner after these deductions. But the route agent does not actually render any service. The shipper has besides no alternative choice of employing other ships. He must get the ships through the route agent only on payment of commission to the latter since he has got the monopoly to carry all goods. The shipper therefore is in a worse position than before. No other shipping agent can come to his rescue, since the fixed rates leave no margin of commission for another shipping agent, nor the shipper can employ another shipping agent as he must per-

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force go only to the route agent. In fact, as stated above, another shipping agent will not come forward to render this service, as there is no provision for his commission in the freight which must go to the route agent. And no shipper will pay to another shipping agent extra commission for his services over and above the fixed rates.

It was because of difficulties like these that are sure to arise, that we had been suggesting all along and have suggested even in this book to leave private cargo out of the operation of the route agent. He should have been appointed to handle government and military cargo only with the possible addition of rail-cum-sea cargo. The difficulties are likely to multiply from time to time as the volume of traffic grows, leading to the possibility of the growth of Black Market in various ways.

Under the system now introduced, it should be incumbent on the route agent to handle this traffic of small parcels by running ships himself for various ports. This traffic is practically the major portion of the traffic on the coast. At present he does not perform this function and undertakes only to bring the owners and shippers together—a function so far performed by brokers—and gets his commission when brokerage has to be paid to the brokers all the same. The route agents must needs cater to this traffic by fixing ships for loading within the route. The route agent cannot shirk his responsibility towards the shippers of small parcels of cargo within the route entrusted to him for operation.

2. Guarantee of full load cargo: This is implied in the system now put into operation.

It would be obligatory on the route agent to find full load of cargo for the ships registered in his route, because once these are registered with him—and they have to be registered with him—any alternative engagement for the ships will be barred. So, the owners must depend on the route agent for providing full cargo. At present he is leaving this function to the owners, brokers and shippers. This is not in order. It is the route agent who has to perform this part of the job and find full load cargo for the ships for one port expeditiously. This is implied in his appointment as the sole disposer of the cargo in his route.

This is his responsibility. If he cannot perform his duty in this respect, he ceases to be the sole route agent. Under ordinary circumstances, owners would have found alternative engagement where they might get full cargo.

3. Speedy Despatch: Likewise he must give quick despatch to the ships, because the cargo is registered with him and he has to allot all the cargo in his route. As the cargo is registered with him, it is for him to see that the ships are given quick despatch.

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4. The question of priorities is likely to arise, and it is here that Black Market may possibly be created. It will be difficult for the government to check the daily registration, unless the Controller of Indian Shipping or Country Craft Organization Officer check it daily. This may be possible only at big ports where such officers have their offices. But what about other ports? Who is to check these daily registrations?

In such conditions, the creation and growth of Black Market is possible, however much the heads of the Route Agency try to be upright and however much they try to enforce the system of strict rectitude.

5. The Route Agency was originally suggested, so far as the Author is aware, for (a) carrying government and military cargo primarily, and then if necessary for (b) through-booked goods by sea-cum-rail route, and (c) small consignments of less than a boat-load if on any routes other shipping agents were not available to handle this traffic.

But the government, having given a monopoly to the Route Agents for all traffic including public cargo, merchants dealing in commodities like cotton, cotton seeds, oil and ghee, mineral oils, cocoanuts, timber, cement, salt, bricks, tiles etc. which are usually transported in full shiploads by specially chartered ships, oftentimes for the whole season, have now to be at the mercy of the route agents and to pay to the latter their commission for rendering no service to them. Such merchants have to pay brokerage to their brokers just the same. It was never intended to impose shipping agents on the traffic which was already moving wholely by sailing ships. Such agents were primarily required for the traffic diverted from railways and steamers. If the route agents were appointed to handle the traffic thus diverted from railways and steamers besides that for the government and military cargo, the arrangement could have been continued even after the war. The shipowners themselves would have converted their ships into mechanically-propelled ships out of the profits made during the war, and by the saving that would have been effected by not having to pay the commission to the Route Agents.

6. Under the present system, shipowners will still be required to find cargo for their ships through brokers. The Route Agents might load the ships registered with them if they have cargo to offer. Otherwise the owners have to find cargo for their ships.

Thus, if owners are required to secure cargo for their ships and if brokers are required to find cargo for the owners' ships, and if shippers are to find ships for the cargo that they want to ship, where then the Route Agent comes in? For what services he is paid commission? He is all right for the government and military cargo. But for the public cargo he is a misfit, though

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making his commission just the same.

7. It is understood that the responsibility of the Route Agent for pilferage by the crew etc. is limited only to half the freight which remains payable to the shipowners until such time that the cargo has reached its destination.

In one shipload, say of 100 tons, this amount of balance freight would not, on an average, amount to more than Rs. 500 to 600, while the value of the cargo in the ship might exceed several hundreds of thousand. The public would have to entrust the valuable cargo to an unknown and illiterate tindel and equally unknown crew just because of the juxtaposition of the Route Agent between them and the crew. In former times, the shipping agents or the brokers were more or less assurers to the shippers for the conduct of the tindels and the crew. This function now obviously devolves upon the route agent, and the shipper has to look to him alone for guarantee in this case. But if the Route Agent's responsibility is limited only to the payment of a sum equivalent to the balance half of the freight, then who is to undertake the responsibility as regards the valuable cargo given in charge of the illiterate crew unknown to the shipper? The shipper is probably worse off, because, the shipping agent might demand full payment of the freight amount from the shipper before departure of the ship, whereas the shipper used to retain with him half portion of the freight till the ship reached destination. The route agent's plea would be that he is responsible to the owners for the full freight and he will himself pay the balance freight at destination through his agents. Thus the shipper does not on the one hand get any additional security by the imposition of the route agent on him, and on the other hand, he will be called upon to part with the balance freight which he used to retain up to now. Where is then the necessity of appointing substantial route agents and payment of commission to them? If the public cargo had to be thus subjected to the control of the route agent, then at least the merchants should have been given additional security which the substantial route agent is expected to give. He should have been made responsible to the shipper for the cargo pilfered, while he could have his own recourse against the owner. It is on the recommendation of the route agent that the shipper will entrust his cargo to one or the other owner. Ultimately therefore the route agent is responsible to the shipper even though the owner and the broker may have helped him to secure the cargo. The route agent cannot shirk his responsibility in this respect. He has to find a ship for the cargo, and naturally therefore he must find out a reliable one and remain responsible for any pilferage of the cargo in transit by the ship's company. He cannot then leave the shipper to deal with the owner of the ship which the route agent has secured for the shipper.

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Thus the Route System as now introduced by the Government is open to varied criticism in several respects, and unless some of its objectionable features are removed early, complications are likely to arise which it may be difficult to clear at a later date. The new system is not likely to result in organization of the sailing vessel traffic. It would be beneficial to a few monopolists only to the detriment of the shipowners and the crew. It is the hibrid mixture of the Route Agency mentioned by us in Chapter XVIII and originally suggested mainly for government and military cargo, and of the Central Booking Agency. It has ignored in the first place the chief feature of the Route System as originally suggested, that is, to leave the public cargo out of the operations of the route agents who would be government contractors only; and, on the contrary it has included the worst feature of the Central Booking Agency, that is, the full-fledged monopoly circumscribed by the area of the route. The Route Agent thus becomes the miniature Central Booking Agent within his area limited to his route or routes instead of the entire west coast which was suggested to be operated by the Central Booking Agency. Monopoly of the entire traffic which was not originally intended to be created but which Central Booking Agency would have established has in fact been now created, though there are now a few more full-fledged monopolists instead of one for the whole of the West Coast. Discontent is likely to follow, and both the shipowners and the crew are likely to be subjected to hardships of various nature as indicated above. We wish that the system succeeds. But as introduced now, its success is dependent on the extent to which some of its unwelcome features are removed. It is hoped that no time is lost in doing this, so as to make the scheme a success.

Bombay,
September 25, 1944.

K. B. Vaidya.

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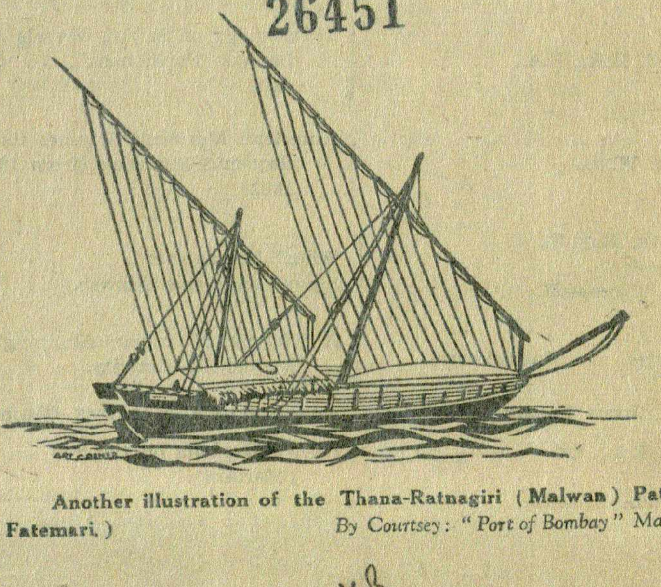

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